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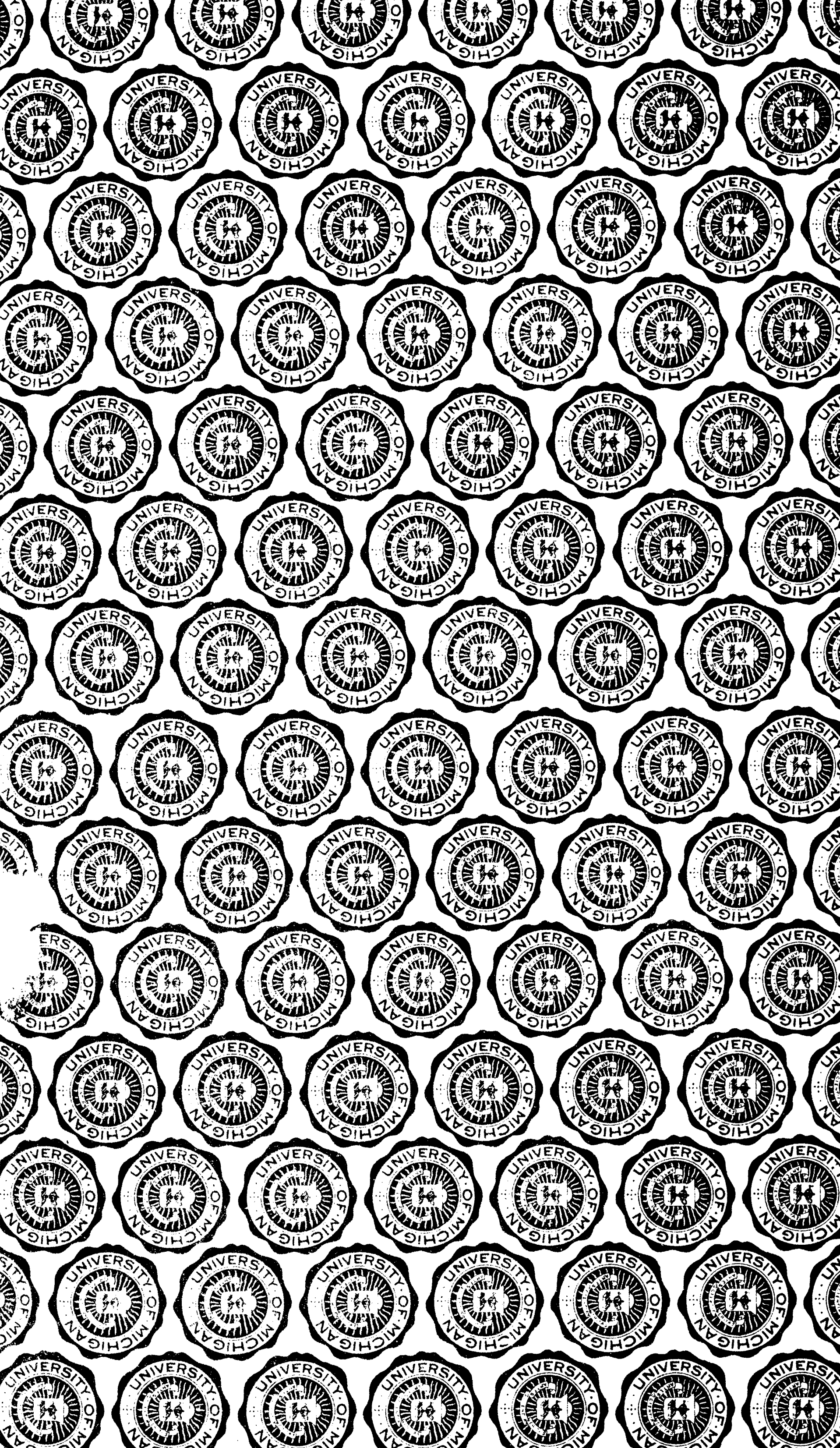

AN ENUMERATION OF PHILIPPINE FLOWERING PLANTS

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BY

ELMER D. MERRILL

DIRECTOR AND BOTANIST, BUREAU OF SCIENCE

VOLUME 4

MANILA
BUREAU OF PRINTING
1926

200765

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EXPLANATORY NOTE

It was originally intended to issue this work in three volumes, the general introduction to be issued as a part of Volume 1 and the indices to form a part of Volume 3. Owing to the extent of the introduction, the bibliography, and the indices, it has been found best to issue all these data as Volume 4.

IMPORTANT

In binding Volumes 2 and 3 discard the title-page issued with fascicle 5 of each of those volumes and substitute therefor the revised title-pages found at the end of Volume 4.

ELMER D. MERRILL.

MANILA, P. I., *November 1, 1923.*

Philippine islands. Bureau of science.

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THE GOVERNMENT OF THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE AND NATURAL RESOURCES
BUREAU OF SCIENCE
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AN ENUMERATION OF PHILIPPINE FLOWERING PLANTS

By ELMER D. MERRILL

Director and Botanist, Bureau of Science

INTRODUCTION

SITUATION AND AREA OF THE PHILIPPINE ARCHIPELAGO *

The Philippine Archipelago is situated to the northeast of Borneo between latitudes 4° 30′ and 21° 30′ north and longitudes 116° and 127° east and, hence, is located wholly within the Tropics. The total land area of the Archipelago is about 296,296 square kilometers (114,400 square miles), or practically the same as that of the New England States and New York combined (115,635 square miles), and slightly less than that of the British Isles (121,753 square miles).

There are 7,083 distinct islands and islets in the Archipelago, scattered over a water area of approximately 1,476,000 square kilometers (570,000 square miles). The greatest length of the Archipelago from north to south is approximately 1,840 kilometers (1,143 miles), while the greatest breadth from east to west is about 1,070 kilometers (665 miles).

Of the very numerous islands and islets only 466 have an area of over 1 square mile, more than half the total number being merely rocky islets and reefs. Of the total land area over two-thirds are embraced by the two largest islands, Luzon and Mindanao.

The largest island is Luzon, with an area of approximately 105,708 square kilometers, followed by Mindanao, the area of which is about 95,587 square kilometers. The other large islands, in order of size, and their respective areas are as follows:

	Square kilometers.		Square kilometers.
Samar	13,271	Panay	11,520
Negros	12,699	Mindoro	9,826
Palawan	11,655	Leyte	7,249

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* For the figures given under this subject I am indebted to the Manila office of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey.

	Square kilometers.		Square kilometers.
Cebu	4,390	Siargao	427
Bohol	3,973	Burias	401
Masbate	3,250	Culion	386
Catanduanes	1,461	Dumaran	324
Basilan	1,248	Balabac	321
Busuanga	971	Ticao	321
Marinduque	899	Siquijor	319
Jolo	837	Samal	251
Dinagat	777	Camiguin de Misamis	241
Tablas	666	Panaon	199
Polillo	653	Camiguin (Babuyan group)	196
Guimaras	580	Olutanga	191
Tawitawi	572	Alabat	184
Biliran	495	Lubang	171
Sibuyan	445		

All of these islands are inhabited, while many smaller than these not infrequently support a considerable population. Many small islands and islets are uninhabited.

The Archipelago is essentially mountainous. The culminating peak is Mount Apo (2,929 meters); other high peaks are: Malindang, 2,425 meters; Urdaneta, or Hilong-hilong, 1,838; and Matutum, 2,292, in Mindanao; Canlaon, 2,438, in Negros; Madiaas, 2,180, in Panay; Victoria, 1,732, in Palawan; Halcon, 2,587, and Baco, 2,487, in Mindoro; Mayon, 2,421; Banahao, 2,188; Santo Tomas, or Tonglon, 2,258; Pulog, 2,924; Amuyao, 2,702, and numerous others in Luzon. Among the medium-sized and larger islands there are no high peaks on Samar, Masbate, or Bohol. Generally speaking the mountain ranges trend north and south or, in Palawan, northeast and southwest. The presence of numerous ranges and high peaks has a profound effect on the climate; especially, in connection with the prevailing winds, on the seasonal distribution of rainfall, and a corresponding effect on the types of vegetation at low and medium altitudes. Two factors, mountains and winds, largely account for the variations in climate in different parts of the Philippines.

CLIMATE OF THE PHILIPPINES

Much of the data regarding climate, including temperature, rainfall, humidity, and winds, is taken, often almost verbatim, from the work of Father José Coronas,* S. J., of the Manila

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* Coronas, J., The climate and weather of the Philippines, 1903 to 1918. Census of the Philippine Islands * * * 1918 1 (1920) 291–474, reprint 1–195, *pls. 1–29.*

Observatory, and this part of my manuscript was submitted to him for approval. The only additions that I have made are in reference to the effect of these several factors on the vegetation of the Philippines and its distribution, together with some data supplied by Dr. Roy E. Dickerson.

TEMPERATURE

The entire Philippine Archipelago is situated within the Tropics, and hence tropical conditions as to climate and temperature obtain at low and medium altitudes throughout the Archipelago. The annual average temperature at low altitudes (approximately sea level), as recorded over periods of from five to sixteen years at about fifty stations scattered from the Batan Islands and northern Luzon to Palawan, southern Mindanao, and Sulu, ranges from 25.8° to 27.9° C., while at Mount Mirador, Baguio, altitude, 1,512.5 meters, the only station at high altitude where continuous observations have been made, the average for sixteen years is 17.9° C. The mean annual temperature for the whole Archipelago as deduced from the records of stations situated near sea level is 26.9° C. The difference between the annual average temperature of the southernmost stations, like Jolo and Zamboanga, and that of the northernmost stations, like Aparri and Basco, is but about 1° C.

In the great majority of the stations the maximum monthly mean temperatures are those of April and May, although in a few stations the highest is that of August. In general the year might be divided into seven warmer months, April to October, with a mean monthly temperature of 26.9° to 28.1° C.; and five cooler months, November to March, with a mean monthly temperature of 25.4° to 26.5° C. May is the warmest month, and January the coldest.

Taking into consideration only the records of stations at low altitudes we find that for the period 1903 to 1918 the absolute highest temperature recorded for Luzon is 42.2° C., and the lowest, 12.1° C., at Tarlac, Luzon; while the highest and lowest for the Visayas and Mindanao are 38.2° and 13.3° C., respectively, at Ormoc, Leyte.

While the temperature of the Philippines is generally even at low and medium altitudes from north to south there are certain differences between the southernmost and the northernmost stations that are scarcely indicated by the slight difference in annual average temperatures. The annual range in Jolo is approximately 3° C. while that at Aparri is about 8°, this being accounted for by the appreciably cooler winter months at Aparri as compared with the more equable climate of the southern station at Jolo. This increase in range in southern and northern stations is progressive and in general rather characteristic for places under otherwise similar conditions.

Doctor Dickerson's manuscript states:

> That there is a direct relationship between oceanic temperatures and the air temperature in the Philippines is entirely reasonable and beyond much doubt the lack of any marked difference in annual temperature between Aparri and Jolo, for example, is due to the equalization brought about by warm equatorial waters which flow northward along the eastern coast of the Philippines—the Kuro-Siwo, or Japanese Current. A glance at the map indicates that the Philippines, Gilolo, and New Guinea act as blocks to a further westerly progress of the surface waters of the Pacific which are forced towards the equator by the trade winds. Great depths occur off Mindanao, Samar, and northern Luzon, while the continental shelf on the eastern side of the Philippines is exceedingly narrow. Probably owing to this abrupt change in submarine topography the northern deflection of these equatorial waters is greatly increased. As the hydrographic map shows, there are few breaks in these deflection walls, notably one between Mindanao and Gilolo and in turn between Gilolo and New Guinea. Even these extensive breaks south of Mindanao are not sufficient to prevent a definite north-flowing current.

Unquestionably, this current is a strong factor in maintaining the equable climatic conditions. Naturally, the annual temperatures are much more uniform than would be possible in a continental land mass, covering a similar area.

Except at higher altitudes the climate of the entire Archipelago is strictly tropical. On the Baguio Plateau, altitude, about 1,450 meters, frosts occur in December and January, while on the higher peaks of northern Luzon ice forms on stagnant pools of water during the colder months of the year. Ice approximately 1 centimeter in thickness has been recorded from Mount Pulog, at an altitude of 2,880 meters, in January. Wet snow storms are not uncommon on the higher peaks of northern Luzon during the winter months.

In the Philippines, temperature has comparatively little effect on the north and south distribution of individual genera and species of plants. Other factors being equal, or approximately equal, most or all species occurring at low altitudes in northern Luzon thrive about as well in Mindanao, and vice versa. However, we do find certain genera and species of Asiatic origin in Luzon that do not occur in the central and southern Philippines at low and medium altitudes, and likewise a corresponding number of forms of Malaysian* origin that occur in the southern and central Philippines that do not extend to Luzon. Generally speaking, however, the distribution of these Asiatic and Malaysian types in the Archipelago is apparently controlled more by lack of facilities for dissemination, or by physical barriers, and by the monthly distribution of the rainfall, than by temperature.

Temperature, however, is a very important factor in altitudinal distribution of plants here as in other countries. This is well illustrated by the altitudinal distribution of the Dipterocarpaceae, a family of trees dominant in the primary forests of the entire Archipelago at low and medium altitudes, but which scarcely exceed in altitudinal range an elevation of 1,000 meters; while most of the species do not attain this altitude, although other factors than temperature would seem to be favorable for their development at higher altitudes than this in many parts of the Archipelago. Generally speaking, there is a very distinct change in the nature of the vegetation on the mountains at an altitude of approximately 750 meters, varying somewhat locally with other varying factors. The species, and in many cases the genera, characteristic of the lowland forests disappear and are replaced, sometimes by other species of the same genera, but more often by entirely different genera.

RAINFALL AND HUMIDITY

Rainfall in the Philippines is excessive, as it is in many other tropical countries, and the monthly distribution of the rainfall is not only a most interesting feature in the climate of the Philippines but also has a profound influence on the distribution of plant life in the Archipelago. In spite of the relatively small east and west extension of the Archipelago, especially of Luzon, it is the position of the islands and their mountain masses in reference to the prevailing winds at different seasons that causes the different kinds of climate.

In the winter months the rains in the Philippines are mainly due to the northeasterly air currents, designated the northeast monsoon, which come directly from the Pacific and cause abundant precipitation over the eastern part of the Archipelago. In summer and autumn the rains are mainly due to the influence of typhoons, which either cross the Islands, generally from the east-southeast to west-northwest, or pass some distance to the north. These rains, although general throughout the Archipelago, are more abundant in Luzon and in the central part of the Archipelago; they are exceptionally heavy at times in the western parts of the Islands, which are more exposed to the westerly and southwesterly winds prevalent during the typhoon season. This summer and autumn rainfall may rightly be called typhonic rainfall in contrast to the northeast-monsoon rainfall in the winter months. Typhonic rains are far from being continuous, and their frequency depends entirely on the frequency of typhoons.

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*In this volume the term Malaysia is used to define the entire region from the Malay Peninsula to New Guinea, including the Philippines. Western Malaysia includes the Sunda Islands and the Malay Peninsula, that is, Sunda Land of Molengraaff; eastern Malaysia includes all the islands east of the Macassar Strait, including New Guinea. For purposes of discussion the Philippine Archipelago is considered as an independent area.

From a study of the average monthly distribution of rainfall for seventy stations in the Philippines and the greater or less prevalence of the two important periods of rain mentioned above, four types of climate are recognized—two altogether opposed types and two intermediate types. The relationship between these types of seasonal distribution of rainfall and topography is best seen by comparing the topographic map (Plate 6) with the climate map (Plate 2).

The first type is characterized by two pronounced seasons, dry in winter and spring, wet in summer and autumn. Only the typhonic or summer rainful prevails, hence the dry season lasts from three to six months. This type prevails in the western parts of Luzon, Mindoro, Negros, and Palawan, and in western and southern Panay.

The second type is characterized by no dry season and a very pronounced maximum rain period in winter. The regions having this type of climate are Catanduanes, northern and eastern Camarines Province, eastern Albay, and Sorsogon; all of Samar; eastern Leyte; and most of eastern Mindanao. These regions are all affected by the northeast-monsoon rains of the winter months and by the typhonic rains of the summer and autumn. Naturally, the vegetation of these regions is radically different from that of the regions subject to a pronounced and often long-continued dry season.

The third type has no very pronounced maximum rain period, but has a dry period lasting only from one to three months. It is intermediate between the last two, approaching the first by virtue of its short dry season. Regions with this type of climate are the western parts of Cagayan, Isabela, and Nueva

Vizcaya Provinces, the eastern part of the Mountain Province, and a small portion of the southern part of Tayabas Province, all in Luzon; Masbate; northeastern Panay; eastern Negros; central and southern Cebu; parts of Misamis, Agusan, and Bukidnon Provinces, and the Zamboanga Peninsula in Mindanao; and a large part of eastern Palawan.

The fourth type is also intermediate between the first two, but has no very pronounced rainy season and no dry season; it approaches the second type rather than the first. Regions with this type of climate are the Batan Islands, the eastern part of northern Luzon from Cagayan Province to the northern third of Tayabas Province, the western parts of Camarines and Albay Provinces, the Bondoc Peninsula of southern Tayabas Province, the eastern part of Mindoro, Marinduque, western Leyte, northern Cebu, Bohol, Jolo, Basilan, and a large part of Mindanao, including Lanao, Cotabato, the western parts of Davao and Misamis, and the eastern part of Zamboanga Province.

The average mean annual rainfall for the entire Archipelago is 2,366.1 millimeters, the annual means for various stations varying from a minimum of 989.8 millimeters to a maximum of 4,597.6 millimeters (181 inches). Torrential downpours are frequent during the typhoon season, and Baguio station presents a record of precipitation during a period of twenty-four hours of 1,168.1 millimeters.

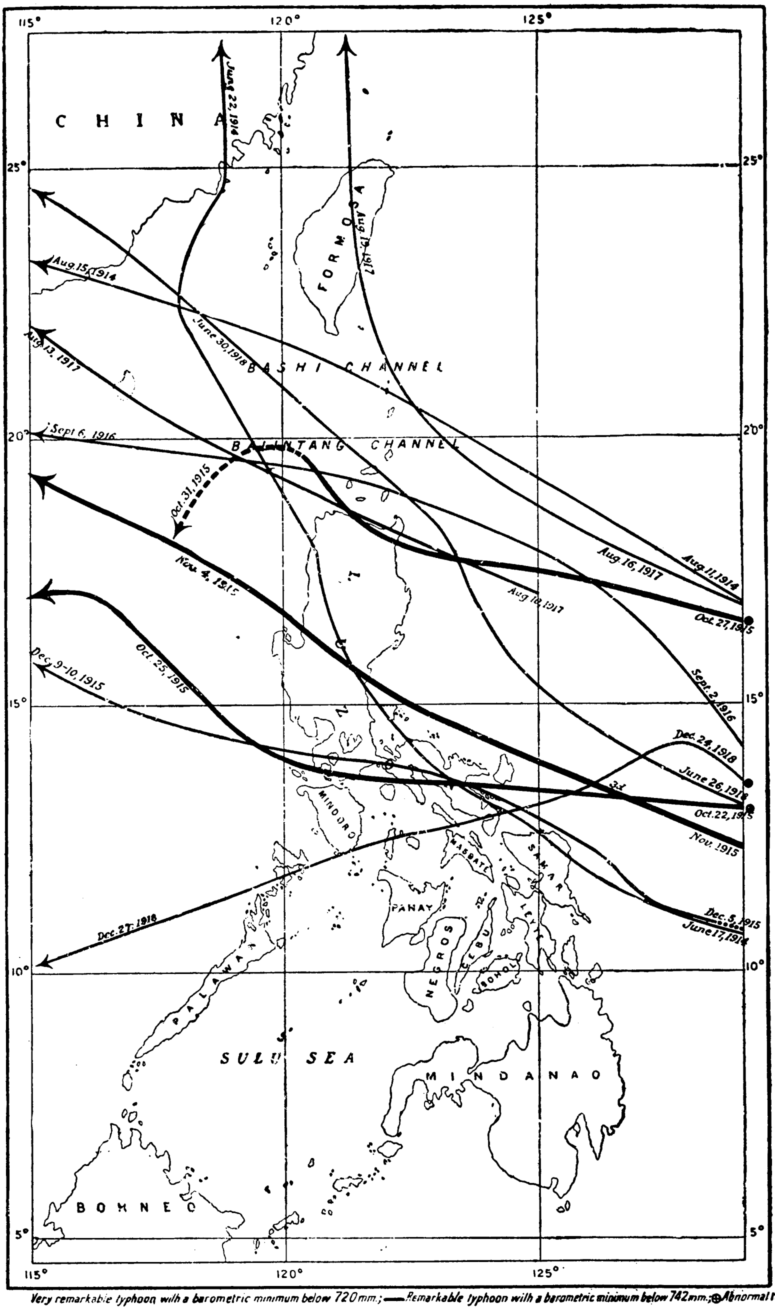
The relative humidity is high in the Philippines, as is to be expected of a region situated as is the Archipelago and so subject to heavy rainfall. Humidity varies in different parts of the Archipelago and in different seasons, being naturally highest in the regions characterized by the absence of a dry season. The average annual means of thirteen stations selected for this study vary between 85.7 and 76.7 per cent.

WINDS

Wind velocity and the frequency of different wind directions are important climatic factors and are distinctly important in connection with the dissemination of numerous species of plants. In the winter months the climate and the rainfall of most of the Archipelago are largely influenced by the northeast monsoon, or trade wind, while during the summer and fall steady typhonic winds from the southwest, often called the southwest monsoon, or trade wind, are prevalent.

From the standpoint of plant distribution within the Archipelago the prevalent northeast and southwest winds are of course of importance, but they are not so important as the typhoons characteristic of the summer and autumn months. Generally speaking, typhoons originate over the Pacific Ocean and cross the Philippines in a west-northwest or a west by north direction (fig. 1). There is a great diversity in the rate of progress of typhoons traversing the Philippines, those with greatest velocity traveling from 45 to 48 kilometers (28 to 30 miles) per hour, while the lowest velocity observed is only 3 to 5 kilometers (2 or 3 miles) per hour. The wind velocity, however, may be very great. The maximum wind velocity recorded at the Manila Observatory from 1903 to 1918 was in September, 1905, when the wind at times attained a velocity of 165.7 kilometers (103 miles) per hour, the center of the typhoon being about 38 kilometers from the City of Manila. During sixteen years there were fourteen cases of hourly wind velocity exceeding 60 kilometers. Previous to 1903, the highest wind velocity recorded in Manila was 195 kilometers (121 miles) per hour, during the destructive typhoon of October, 1882; but as the anemograph was wrecked by the fury of the storm, the real highest wind velocity could not be obtained. In a destructive typhoon, which struck Ishigakihima Island, east of Formosa, on September 3, 1920, a wind velocity of 68 meters per second (245 kilometers, or 152 miles, per hour) was reported.

Temperature, rainfall and its monthly distribution, humidity, and winds are all intimately related to the occurrence and distribution of various vegetative types, in the Philippines as elsewhere in the world. The presence of mountain ranges or high peaks taken in conjunction with the prevailing winds often has a profound influence on the local vegetation and its character. Thus, epiphytic plants that grow abundantly at sea level along the northeastern coast of Mindoro are quite absent from the opposite coast of Luzon; or, if they occur there, they are not found below an altitude of 900 meters. The strait between the two islands is 12 kilometers wide in its narrowest part, but the Mindoro coast here has no pronounced dry season, due to the proximity of the high peak (2,587 meters) known as Mount Halcon, while Batangas Province in Luzon is subject to a long and well-marked dry season. The vegetation of a mountain or a mountain range may be found to be distinctly different on its various sides, the differences apparently in large part controlled by the prevailing winds and consequent difference in rainfall. The difference in the total annual



Very remarkable typhoon with a barometric minimum below 720 mm.; —— Remarkable typhoon with a barometric minimum below 742 mm.; ⊕ Abnormal track.

FIG. 1. Tracks of remarkable typhoons in the Philippines, 1914 to 1918.

amount of rainfall has less effect than the monthly distribution throughout the year.

GENERAL GEOLOGY AND GEOLOGIC HISTORY OF THE PHILIPPINES *

Structurally, the Philippine Archipelago may be considered as the crumpled edge of the Asiatic continental platform. A study of the hydrographic charts of this region reveal many interesting features, but the most important is perhaps the great "foredeep" close to the eastern margin of the group, in which the deepest known part of the Pacific Ocean is located, about 85 kilometers northeast of Mindanao; this is, in fact, the deepest known place in the world. This foredeep is undoubtedly related to the similar deeps off the east coast of Formosa and Japan, and from this it would seem that these three island groups ought to bear about the same relationship to the mainland. However, there is little evidence of recent connection between the Philippines and Formosa. None of the Archean rocks reported from Formosa has been discovered in the Philippines, and the supposition that there is perhaps a difference in geologic history in these groups is confirmed by the biologic testimony (see p. 85) to the effect that the faunal and floral alliances of Formosa are largely with Asia rather than with the Philippines.

West of the Archipelago is the much lesser deep of the China Sea, presumably a sunken area, or "Graben." Two long, comparatively narrow, interrupted land bridges between Borneo and the Philippines, by way of Palawan and the Sulu Archipelago, respectively, are significant features in the present framework of the Archipelago.

The present land areas of the Philippines are merely the higher portions of a partly submerged mountain mass, in part the crests of anticlinoria, in part the upthrust blocks, or horsts, caused by faulting, in part the summits of volcanoes. Some of the straits, consequently, are the downfolded areas, or synclines, while others are dropped blocks. The structure of the Archipelago is by no means simple. Besides the folding and faulting just mentioned, there are intrusives and volcanic extrusives of different periods which further complicate matters.

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* From data supplied by Dr. Warren D. Smith, chief of the Division of Mines, Bureau of Science, being chiefly excerpts from his publication, Geology and Mineral Resources of the Philippine Islands, Bur. Sci. Publ. 19 (1924) 1–559.

Practically all of the principal rock types are found in the Philippines. On a basement complex of igneous rock there are many thousand feet of sediments, mainly of the Tertiary, with some small outcrops of Mesozoic rocks, and these in turn are succeeded by lavas of the andesite type, with great accumulations of more recent tuffs and considerable areas of coral limestone. The Archipelago is not dominantly volcanic, although many extinct and some active volcanoes are found in the group.

The deep-seated rocks, naturally, are not very widely distributed on the surface. In all parts of the Archipelago there is a mantle of extrusive material over the deeper-lying formations, especially in the volcanic areas. Much of this material is andesite, basalt, and tuff. Large and small laccoliths of diorite, granite, and basalt occur in various parts of the Archipelago. Intrusions consist largely of diorite, quartz diorite, and occasionally granite and basalt. Sandstones, shales, and limestones are developed to a greater or less degree, in some regions being dominant. In various parts of the Islands, metamorphic rocks such as schists, gneisses, and slates occur more or less pronouncedly; the first appear for the most part to be metamorphosed sediments, although many are undoubtedly derived from basic igneous rocks. Recent alluvium and pyroclastics are extensively developed in various parts of the Archipelago, chiefly in the great plains.

While various geologists have tried to prove the existence of Paleozoic formations in the Archipelago, nothing known indicates the existence of any land mass in Paleozoic times on the site of the present archipelago. It is reasonably certain that during Mesozoic times there was some land mass to represent the Philippine Archipelago, since below the Tertiary there are gneisses and slates which must have been derived from materials that came from a land mass near by and which were later metamorphosed into slates and schists. There are other deposits, possibly of deep-water origin, such as the radiolarian cherts, which have been correlated with Bornean equivalents and also with the Franciscan (Jurassic) of California and Oregon. Interbedded with the slates, in which no fossils have been found, are lenses of manganese oxide which some geologists claim point clearly to a deep-sea origin. With these also should be grouped the grano-diorite, the diorite, and the granitic intrusions found in various parts of the Archipelago, especially in Luzon.

These rocks were intruded into the existing ones, probably late in the Mesozoic, since their equivalents in other countries about the Pacific are post-Jurassic.

At the close of the Mesozoic and probably during the Cretaceous period there was evident dynamism with both subsidence and uplift; this was the time of the formation of the slates and the schists referred to above and of similar rocks found in Borneo and in Java. Probably at this time the site of the Philippine Archipelago was a great land area. Previous to this time there probably were land connections between Luzon and Formosa; these connections were broken in the early Tertiary. Connections with Borneo and with Celebes probably continued until a much later date.

In considering the Eocene it must be confessed that it is difficult to outline the probable sequence of events. Although there are coal seams and accompanying formations closely simulating those of the Eocene of Java, the fossil evidence indicates that Philippine coal is Miocene. The contact between the older slates, schists, and cherts and the Miocene strata is markedly irregular and indicates a long period of erosion previous to the deposition of the Miocene strata. This mere line of separation between the basal Miocene conglomerate may represent all of Eocene and Oligocene time; that is, during the Eocene and the Oligocene most of what is now the Philippine Archipelago was above sea level.

In the Miocene there was a general subsidence and a period of great deposition in shallow water, during which time the coal deposits were laid down. Even at that time there were isolated masses of older and more-resistant rocks represented by the cores of many of the islands of to-day. In the region of northern Luzon there was a much larger land mass than in any other place within the present confines of the Archipelago. At that time land masses like the present Luzon and Mindanao were each separated into several smaller islands.

Beginning early in the Miocene, but becoming more pronounced after the middle and continuing to the close of that period, there was a general submergence, accompanied by foldings of the sandstones, shales, and coal beds previously deposited. This was the well-known "Miocene Revolution," which was of almost world-wide extent. At the same time much faulting occurred, and separate blocks having the general position of the present large islands resulted. As a concomitant of this folding and faulting, there were intrusions and extrusions of andesitic and basaltic lavas, followed by ore depositions. Following this folding, which probably closed the Miocene, great erosion occurred and then much of the Philippine area was submerged beneath the sea to receive a thick accumulation of Pliocene coralline limestones and sandstones largely derived from the wear of reef corals of this time. The record of the Pleistocene epoch is marked by much uplifting and by the numerous marine terraces cut in the older rocks. Uplifting was not the only process, but local subsidences occurred as well. This elevation is one of the major episodes in the geologic history of the Archipelago, as is attested by the presence at an altitude of about 1,500 meters in north-central Luzon of a Pliocene fossil flora, the constituent genera and species of which are absolutely matched by living forms characteristic of the dipterocarp forest now dominant throughout the Archipelago from sea level to an altitude of about 800 meters, while the fossil marine shells and corals in these high-altitude deposits so far collected and studied, without exception, belong to species now living along the neighboring coasts.

Within the Recent, submergences and elevations have undoubtedly taken place, indicated in some parts of the Archipelago by drowned rivers, in others by elevated beaches and reefs. The last episodes in the geologic history of the Archipelago have been the building up of volcanic cones of fragmental ejecta such as those of Mayon and Taal, reef building, and the work of degradation by streams.

Archipelagic rather than continental conditions have characterized, in general, what is now the Philippines, at least from the early or middle Tertiary; and the entire region, as well as regions farther south—Celebes, Gilolo, and the Moluccas, or the entire group from Lombok and Celebes to New Guinea—has evidently been one of unstable equilibrium subject to great depressions and elevations through the Pleistocene, and perhaps earlier, to the Recent. There have been correspondingly profound geographic changes in the Archipelago, certain islands now separate having been connected at times with others, while each of certain existing islands was formerly represented by several distinct ones. There are marked evidences of previous land connections between the Philippines and Borneo through the Calamian Islands, Palawan, and Balabac to the north, and the Sulu Archipelago to the south; less striking but at the same time distinct is the evidence of former connections with Celebes, and the Moluccas through the Sangi Islands with

Celebes, and even through Talaur Island with Gilolo and New Guinea; but there is no evidence of connections with Formosa later than the early Tertiary.

The enormous coast line of the Archipelago; the tropical location; the large land area; the diversified topography; the great altitudinal range (from sea level to 2,929 meters); the varying exposures to the shifting trade winds and typhoons; the peculiar seasonal distribution of the rainfall, conditioned upon the topography, the winds, and the Kuro-Siwo, or Japanese current, which flows north along the east coast of the Archipelago—all these, together with a study of the Philippine flora in the light of geologic history, give us the basis of an explanation of the enormously rich Philippine flora and fauna, the high percentage of specific endemism, and the strictly local occurrence of numerous species.

PHILIPPINE PEOPLES

The Archipelago has been populated by man for a very long time. The ancestors of the present human inhabitants of the group, like those of its plants and animals, originated outside of the Islands.

There are strong reasons for believing that the Negritos, the primitive inhabitants of the Archipelago, reached what is now the Philippines at a time when land connections still existed between the present Philippine Archipelago and neighboring islands. There is absolutely no evidence that the Negritos were ever a seafaring people, and even to-day the use of boats is in general unknown to them; they are so primitive that apparently all of them have lost their original language, whatever it may have been. Their distribution is very peculiar; namely, New Guinea; the Andaman Islands; the Malay Peninsula; parts of central Africa; and, in the Philippines, Mindanao, Negros, Panay, Palawan, and Luzon. They formerly existed in certain parts of India. In all probability they attained their present distribution, whatever their origin, when continuous land connections existed. In many regions where they in all probability formerly existed they have become extinct or completely blended with the later invaders; the latter seems to be the case, for instance, in the interior of Mindoro (see the Mañgyan, p. 32).

Later invaders of the Archipelago, the primitive Indonesians, like the still later Malays, probably came by boats. The last Malay invasion (the Malays form the bulk of the inhabitants of the Archipelago) occurred in the historic period between 1380 and 1450, the time of the introduction of Mohammedanism. This in historic sequence immediately precedes the discovery of the Archipelago by the Spaniards in 1521; Mohammedanism at that time was widespread in the Archipelago. It is evident that there has been a successive series of invasions into the Philippines, chiefly through Malaysia, and that the Archipelago has been extensively colonized for a long time. Most of these invasions were in the prehistoric period, but early in the Christian era it is clear that civilized peoples in this part of the world were in communication with the Philippines.

Civilized Indian peoples visited the Malay Archipelago in the fourth or fifth century before Christ,* and these regions were known to the Chinese as early as the third or fourth century of the present era, and probably earlier, for the Chinese had contacts with the Philippines as early as the third or fourth century before Christ. Probably before the beginning of the Christian era the Hindus had established settlements and introduced Brahmanism into Indo-China, Sumatra, Java, and Borneo. About the fifth or the sixth century of the Christian era Sumatra became Buddhist, and the foundations of the first great Hindu-Malayan empire were laid.

This Sumatran empire, known as Sri-Vishaya, or Sri-Vijaya, seems to have been the dominating power in the East Indies from the seventh to the twelfth century, and for a time, at least, embraced practically the entire Malay Archipelago except a part of Java and the island chain eastward to New Guinea. It included or controlled the Philippines, had outposts in Formosa and Hainan, and is said to have collected tribute even from Ceylon and a part of southern India. Sumatran power was gradually undermined and finally superseded by the growing Javanese state, later widely known as the Empire of Madjapahit. This empire also dominated the entire Malay Archipelago, including the Philippines, and even extended its influence to New Guinea. Its power was broken by the rapid spread of Mohammedanism during the fifteenth century.

These brief data regarding the peopling of the Philippines are mentioned merely to indicate that man has been in the Archipelago for many thousands of years. The presence of man in the Archipelago has had a profound effect on the vegetation, not only in the delimitation of the cultivated and semicultivated areas, as well as the vast areas occupied by the open grasslands and the second-growth forests, but also through intentional or accidental introduction of many species of plants into the Archipelago. I feel convinced that too little weight is given to man and his activities as factors in the distribution of plants, and that very many plant species that are now generally considered to be of natural distribution wherever they occur have directly or indirectly been transmitted by man from one region to another in the long period occupied in his migrations.

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* Beyer, H. O., The Philippines before Magellan: I. The Hindus in Malaysia, Asia 21 (1921) 861–866; II. Early Chinese relations with Malay lands, op. cit. 924–928.

LOCAL NAMES OF PHILIPPINE PLANTS

An attempt has been made to incorporate in this enumeration the numerous local names that are recorded on the specimens and in the published literature.* It must be understood that local names should be used with caution in any attempt to identify species. While many of them are definitely fixed and invariably used for specific forms, others are very loosely used. Strongly marked species and species of definite economic importance are the plants most likely to have fixed names, and this is true in all countries. It frequently happens that local names are used in a generic rather than in a specific sense, or are sometimes applied to entire families or larger groups of plants, especially in the cellular cryptogams. Thus, *dápo* is a term in general use in many dialects for epiphytic orchids and various other epiphytic and even parasitic plants; it really means "to perch." *Yantók* and its Spanish equivalent, *bejuco,* are terms used in a generic sense for the rattan palms *Calamus* and *Daemonorops. Malabayábas* is applied to representatives of various genera that in one or another respect resemble the *bayábas,* or guava, *Psidium guajava* Linn.; and *malacafé* or *malacapí* is very commonly applied to various genera of Rubiaceae that have real or fancied resemblance to coffee, *Coffea arabica* Linn., Sp. *café. Talísai* is applied specifically to *Terminalia catappa* Linn., but is also, in modified forms such as *magtalísai* and *malatalísai,* used for various other species of this genus. *Baléte* and *nónok* are currently used for the numerous species of strangling figs, *Ficus,* while *tibíg* is used for many species of the same genus characterized by cauliflory. *Dúhat* is a specific name for *Eugenia cumini* Druce (*E. jambolana* Lam.), but *malarúhat* (that is, *maladúhat*) is used for numerous species of *Eugenia* that more or less resemble *E. cumini.* In general, the prefix *mala,* which is commonly and widely used in plant names in the Philippines, may be interpreted as "false" or "resembling."

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* No attempt has been made to incorporate many of the local names recorded by Mr. P. J. Wester in various published papers, as he unfortunately does not record the dialect and, what is worse, has in many cases deliberately altered local names by eliminating entire syllables to make them more pronounceable, and by otherwise modifying them. He has not distinguished between extra-Philippine and Philippine names for introduced species, and has in some cases invented entirely new names based on nothing in use, here or elsewhere.

Forty or more local names are known for a single species. In numerous cases many of these names are merely cognate forms derived from a single root, but in other cases they are derived from entirely different roots. At first glance, this number of local names for a single species may seem large, but it is interesting to note changes that may take place in the local name of an introduced species, the approximate date of introduction of which is known.

Pithecolobium dulce Benth., which was introduced into the Archipelago not more than three hundred years ago, with its Aztec name *kwamochitl* or a modification of it, is now common and widely distributed in the Philippines. We find the following names recorded for it: *Chamúltis, damúlkis, damórtis, kamachíli, kamachílis, kamachíle, kamanchílis, kamansíle, kamarsílis, kamantséle, kamonsíle, kimonsíles, kamóntos, kamúnsil,* and *kamóntres,* in the various dialects, all derivatives, by corruption, of the original Aztec name. *Damórtis* is certainly widely differentiated from the original name, yet it is manifestly derived from it. The local variants of the name *achuete,* also of Aztec origin, the common cognomen of *Bixa orellana* Linn., are about as numerous and as striking as is the case with *kamanchile,* while a similar case is presented by the local variants of *kalachuche,* the most commonly used name for *Plumeria acutifolia* Poir. If such differentiations have been attained in approximately three hundred years, then the multiplication of names and their cognate forms for equally useful endemic species does not seem excessive, especially in view of the fact that more than forty languages are spoken in the Archipelago.

As is to be expected, the same name, or cognate forms of it, is often applied to species having little resemblance to each other, the name usually being derived from qualities or products of the various species, rather than from actual resemblances. Thus, *ditá* is applied currently to *Alstonia scholaris* R. Br., but is also applied to various wholly unrelated species that also produce milky juice; for example, *Antiaris toxicaria* Lesch. *Malabágo* or *malubágo* is primarily the correct local name of *Hibiscus tiliaceus* Linn., but is sometimes applied to entirely different species in various families that produce bast fibers; *bágo* is the proper name for *Gnetum indicum* Merr., a vine which produces the strongest bast fiber known in the Philippines, so that *malubágo,* which is probably a weakened form of the reduplicated *balobágo,* may be interpreted as "bast tree," although *Hibiscus tiliaceus* presents nothing in common with *Gnetum indicum* or with other species to which *malubágo* is applied, except in that it produces bast fibers. *Salagó,* a cognate form of *bágo,* is likewise used particularly for various species of Thymelaceae, especially *Wikstroemia,* and also for various other plants in other families producing bast fibers.

In the orthography of local names an attempt has been made to adopt a uniform style. Hard *c* before *a, o,* and *u,* and *qu,* its equivalent in Spanish orthography before *e* and *i,* have been consistently replaced by *k,* except in pure Spanish words. The diphthong *ay* has been generally changed to *ai.* Wherever possible to do so the peculiar *n͠g* sound has been indicated by the necessary digraph; the pronunciation is that of *ng* in "sing." Accentuation has been indicated wherever possible, but unfortunately little attention has been given to this by field men, so that in numerous cases the accentuation cannot be indicated. I am under obligations to Mr. E. E. Schneider, formerly of the Bureau of Forestry, for a general examination of most of the local names appearing in this list.

An attempt has been made to indicate the dialects for numerous names recorded, but in some cases the data on the field labels are so incomplete that the most that could be done in such cases was an approximation. On account of the local use of many names, it is possible that it would have been better to indicate the names by provinces rather than by dialectal abbreviations. This would have been especially desirable in the case of the recorded Negrito names; for, properly speaking, these primitive people have lost their original language, whatever it may have been, and speak the language, sometimes in an archaic form, of the Indonesian or Malaysian peoples with whom they are in closest contact.

To give some idea of the alliances between Philippine local plant names and those of Malaysia in its widest sense, I have selected as examples representatives of a number of genera, in all cases species of natural distribution as distinguished from species known to be introduced into the Philippines or those possibly introduced. Purposely introduced species are very often known by the names under which they were introduced, and these I have avoided.

Sometimes the name, or cognate forms of it, indicates Bornean, Javan, Sumatran, Celebesian, or Moluccan affinities. These names were brought to the Philippines by invading peoples and were applied here to the species (or similar ones) with which they were familiar in the regions whence they came; thus:

Ipi, ipil, and *ipin* correspond to Philippine *ipil, Intsia bijuga* O. Ktze.

*Bitoeng,** *boetoen, hoetoen,* etc., correspond to Philippine *bótong, Barringtonia asiatica* Kurz.

Sembong corresponds to Philippine *sambong, Blumea balsamifera* DC.

Bakoe and *baho, baka, bangko,* etc., correspond to Philippine *bakáu, Rhizophora* and *Bruguiera.*

Bintangoer, bitaoe, and *dingkaran* correspond to Philippine *bitañgól, bitáog,* and *dangkálan, Calophyllum* spp.

Ajo, araoe, and *aroen* correspond to Philippine *agóho, Casuarina equisetifolia* Linn.

Tenga, tangere, tengar, tingi, etc., correspond to Philippine *tañgál, Ceriops.*

Nireh, niri, njiri, etc., correspond to Philippine *nígi, Xylocarpus.*

Papangil corresponds to Philippine *kasopáñgil, Clerodendron.*

Anonang, kanonang, and *nonang* correspond to Philippine *anonang, Cordia dichotoma* Forst. F.

Bakoeng, bahong, etc., correspond to Philippine *bákong, Crinum asiaticum* Linn.

Toeba, toebo, toebe, etc., correspond to Philippine *túba, Derris elliptica* Benth., and to several euphorbiaceous plants used, like *Derris,* for poisoning fish.

Dahoe, dawo, dhao, leow, etc., correspond to Philippine *daó, Dracontomelum.*

Dahok, dadap, dap-dap, darap, etc., correspond to Philippine *dap-dáp, Erythrina.*

Rangas, rengas, rangasa, names for *Gluta renghas* Linn. in Malaysia, appear as *ráñgas, reñgas,* and *rúñgus* in the Philippines for *Buchanania,* an allied genus.

Doengoen and *doengon* correspond to Philippine *dúñgon, Heritiera littoralis* Dry. and *Tarrietia sylvatica* Merr.

Binongan corresponds to Philippine *binúñga, Macaranga tanarius* Muell.-Arg.

Alom corresponds to Philippine *álum, Melanolepis multiglandulosa* Reichb. f. and Zoll.

Bamban, banban, bampang, etc., correspond to Philippine *bamban, Donax cannaeformis* K. Schum.

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* The *oe* in this and following words, in Dutch orthography, represents the Latin *u.*

Kiapo, kajoe-apoe, kapoe-kapoe, etc., correspond to Philippine *kiápo, Pistia stratiotes* Linn.

Bangkala corresponds to Philippine *bangkál, Sarcocephalus=Nauclea.*

Djat, ilat, rigat, etc., correspond to Philippine *árat* and *dáat, Scleria scrobiculata* Nees.

Acha, aga, angsana, asana, and *nala, naga', nalol,* etc., correspond to Philippine *asana* and *naga* or *nara, Pterocarpus indicus* Willd.

Ingas corresponds to Philippine *ligás* and *iñgás, Semecarpus* spp.

Parapat, perepat, etc., correspond to Philippine *pagatpát, Sonneratia caseolaris* Engl.

Sarisa, talisei, and *tarisei* correspond to Philippine *talísai, Terminalia catappa* Linn.

These are only a few of the numerous cases where local Philippine names are identical with or similar to those used in various parts of Malaysia, either for the same or for closely allied species.

The names of plants are hence largely of Malaysian origin, but some clearly show the influence of Sanskrit, doubtless coming through Malaysia. The names of Sanskrit origin are, with few exceptions, applied only to plants introduced from India or Malaysia, in all probability mostly from Java and Sumatra in the Sri-Vishaya and Madjapahit periods, when the Philippines was a part of those Sumatran and Javan Hindu empires (see p. 21). Notable local names of Sanskrit origin are the following:

Sulasi (Sanskr. *tulasi*) for *Ocimum.*

Lasoná (Sanskr. *lasuma, rasona*) for *Allium cepa* Linn.

Malísa (Sanskr. *maricha*) for *Piper nigrum* Linn.

Kachúmba and *kasóbha* (Sanskr. *kasumbha*) for *Carthamus tinctorius* Linn.

Malunggai (Sanskr. *marungi*) for *Moringa oleifera* Lam.

Kastúli (Sanskr. *latakasturika*) for *Abelmoschus moschatus* Medic.

Muthá (Sanskr. *mustaka;* Hindu *mutha*) for *Cyperus rotundus* Linn.

Patóla (Sanskr. *patola*) for *Luffa,* the Sanskrit name applied to a similar genus, *Trichosanthes.*

Champáka (Sanskr. *champaka*) for *Michelia champaca* Linn.

Dansúli (Sanskr. *gandasuli*) for *Hedychium coronarium* Koenig.

Lagundí' (Sanskr. *nirgundi*) for *Vitex negundo* Linn.

Daua (Sanskr. *yava,* corn or barley) for Italian millet, *Setaria italica* Beauv.

Although the Chinese have been in communication with the Philippines from the third or the fourth century before Christ and there is, and has been for many centuries, a large Chinese colony in the Philippines, now approximately 45,000 individuals, they have been largely engaged in commerce and have had little influence on the names of plants. There are, however, some names of Chinese origin for certain cultivated plants, such as *bátau* for the introduced *Dolichos lablab* Linn., *sítau* for the introduced *Vigna sinensis* Savi (*tau* is a Cantonese word for "bean"), *kuchai* for the introduced and cultivated *Allium tuberosum* Roxb., *tungháo* for the introduced and cultivated *Chrysanthemum coronarium* Linn., *unsói* or *ungsói* for the introduced and cultivated *Apium graveolens* Linn., *péchai* for an introduced and cultivated *Brassica,* and *cha* used in various combinations for either tealike plants or for tea substitutes. Plant names of manifest Chinese origin are curiously few and, for the most part, are seemingly applied to species introduced by the Chinese themselves from China.

The Spanish influence on local plant names has been rather great. We find few pure Spanish names applied to endemic species, but numerous pure Spanish or corrupted Spanish names applied to introduced ones. To a very large extent the application of a Spanish name to a given species indicates the introduction of that species after the Spanish occupation, the date of the Spanish discovery being 1521. Naturally, a few Spanish names are applied in the Philippines to species that are similar in certain respects to those growing in Spain. Spanish words are not infrequently used in combination with Filipino words for designating certain species, such as *lauán colorado, lauán blanco, narra amarilla,* etc. Certain local Filipino names, especially of species of commercial importance, have become permanently modified by the Spanish influence, as in the case of molave (from *mulauin*), narra (from *nara*), etc.

Numerous local plant names are of Aztec origin, the names having been introduced by Spaniards with the plants from Mexico or applied to plants here by Spanish or Mexican residents of the Archipelago. It should be remembered that until about 1820 the Philippines were governed as a dependency of Mexico and that for nearly three hundred years all communication between Spain and the Philippines was via Acapulco and Vera Cruz. Generally speaking, Mexican (Aztec) names are applied here to species introduced from tropical America (from Acapulco), but there are a few exceptions. Thus, *kolítes* from *kolitl* is applied to certain edible species of *Amaranthus,* instead of being properly used as a generic term for pot herbs in general; and *albútra* is applied to the menispermaceous *Archangelisia* (a genus confined to Malaysia), merely because its medicinal qualities are similar to those of the tropical American species of the genus *Abuta* of the same family, the generic name being derived from some American local name. Among names of Mexican origin currently used in the Philippines may be mentioned *kakauáte,* from *kakauatl, Gliricidia maculata* Jacq.; *kalachúchi,* from *kalachuchil, Plumeria acutifolia* Poir.; *kamanchíli* and numerous variants, from *kwamochitl, Pithecolobium dulce* Benth.; *kamóte,* from *kamotl, Ipomoea batatas* Poir.; *chíko,* from *chikl, Achras sapota* Linn.; *sapóte,* from *sapotl, Diospyros ebenaster* Retz.; *aposótis,* from *aposotl, Chenopodium ambrosioides* Linn.; to say nothing of such manifest American (Mexican) names as *kamáte,* or *tomáte* (tomato), *maguey, cacao,* etc. As these names indicate the American origin of the several species mentioned, so do such names as *ayapána* for *Eupatorium triplinerve* Vahl, and *akapúlko* or *kapúrko* (from Acapulco, Mexico) for *Cassia alata* Linn., the last clearly indicating that *Cassia alata* was introduced into the Philippines from Acapulco, Mexico.

Generally speaking, there are three ethnic groups in the Philippines. These are the primitive Negritos; the Indonesians, forming the bulk of the pagan peoples living in the interior and chiefly mountainous parts of Luzon and Mindanao; and the Malays, forming the bulk of the Christian Filipinos and the Mohammedan peoples in Mindanao and the Sulu Archipelago. There are about forty-five languages spoken among the peoples of the Philippines, some of course only slightly differentiated, but others strongly so, although all are definitely of Malaysian origin. With the rich and diversified flora, and the many more or less distinct ethnic and language groups, local plant names are, of course, very numerous.

The abbreviations adopted for the various local dialects and languages, based on the work of and prepared in consultation with Prof. H. Otley Beyer * to whom I am under distinct obligations for advice and assistance, are as follows (see Plate 3):

Ap. = Apáyao.
Bag. = Bagóbo.
Bik. = Bíkol.
Bil. = Bilá-an.
Bis. = Bisáya.
P. Bis. = Panay Bisáya.
C. Bis. = Cebu Bisáya.
S.-L. Bis. = Samar-Leyte Bisáya.
Ak. Bis. = Aklan Bisáya.
Bon. = Bontók.
Buk. = Bukídnon.
Chab. = Chabacáno.
Dum. = Dumágat.
Gad. = Gaddáng.
Ibn. = Ibanág.
If. = Ifugáo.
Ilk. = Ilóko.
Ig. = Igorot.
Ilg. = Ilongót.
Is. = Isinái.
Ism. = Isámal.

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* Beyer, H. O., Population of the Philippines in 1916, Manila (1917) 1-95.

Iv. = Ivatán.
Kul. = Kuláman.
Klg. = Kalínga.
Kuy. = Kuyónon.
Lan. = Lánao.
Mag. = Magindanáo.
Mang. = Mangyán.
Mand. = Mandáya.
Mbo. = Manóbo.
Mng. = Mangguángan.
Neg. = Negrito.
Pamp. = Pampángan.
Pang. = Pangasinán.
Sbl. = Sambáli.
Sml. = Sámal.
Sp. = Spanish.
Sul. = Súlu.
Sub. = Subánun.
Tag. = Tagálog.
Tagb. = Tagbanúa.
Tagk. = Tagaká-ólo.
Ting. = Tinggián.
Tir. = Tirurái.
Yak. = Yakán.

The Apáyao, an Indonesian group, number approximately 23,000 and live for the most part in Apáyao Subprovince, in the northwestern part of Luzon, with some in contiguous parts of Ilocos Norte and Cagayan.

The Bagóbo, an Indonesian group with Malay blend, number approximately 9,350 and are located along the northwest coast of Davao Gulf and on the eastern and southern slopes of Mount Apo and adjacent peaks in southeastern Mindanao.

The Bíkol number approximately 685,000 and form the fourth largest Philippine group. They are predominantly of the Malay type and occupy Camarines Norte, Camarines Sur, Albay, and Sorsogon Provinces, Catanduanes, and a part of Masbate.

The Bilá-an, largely an Indonesian group, number approximately 10,500 and occupy parts of Davao Province and adjacent parts of Cotabato Province; also the Sarangani Islands and the central part of Sarangani Peninsula, all in southeastern Mindanao.

The Bisáya form the largest ethnic group in the Philippines, numbering approximately 3,900,000. They are predominantly of the Malay type and occupy the entire central part of the Archipelago, including Tablas, Romblon, Panay, Negros, Cebu, Bohol, Siquijor, Leyte, Biliran, Samar, Dinagat, Siargao, Camiguin de Misamis, parts of Masbate and Mindoro, and the northern and eastern coasts of Mindanao. The Bisáya are divided into four dialect groups; namely, the Panay Bisáya, occupying most of Panay, Guimaras, and the eastern part of Negros; the Cebu Bisáya, occupying Cebu Island, western Negros, Bohol, Siquijor, western Leyte, Dinagat, Siargao, Cagayan de Misamis, and the northern and eastern coasts of Mindanao; the Samar-Leyte Bisáya, occupying Samar, eastern Leyte, Biliran, and the southern part of Masbate; and the Aklan Bisáya, the smallest group, occupying a roughly triangular area in northern Panay.

The Bontók, a predominantly Indonesian group, number approximately 63,000 and inhabit Bontoc Subprovince, Mountain Province, northern Luzon, with a few in Kalinga Subprovince, and in Abra and Ilocos Sur Provinces.

The Bukídnon, a Malaysian blend with a strong admixture of the short Mongol and pure Indonesian type, number approximately 50,000 and are located in Bukidnon Province in the north-central part of Mindanao, with a few in Misamis, Agusan, and Cotabato Provinces.

The Dumágat, numbering only a few hundred individuals, occupy the Kalawat Islands off the north coast of Camarines Norte Province, Luzon. They are essentially of the Indonesian type, but with marked Papuan characteristics.

The Gaddáng number approximately 34,000 and occupy the Mágat River Valley in Nueva Vizcaya and Isabela Provinces, and the upper Cagayan Valley in Isabela; some live east of Cagayan River in Isabela Province. They are predominantly of the Indonesian type.

The Ibanág number approximately 156,000 and occupy the Cagayan Valley in Cagayan and Isabela Provinces, in northern Luzon. They are predominantly of the Indonesian type with a strong Papuan or Melanesian element.

The Ifugáo number approximately 100,000 and form a mixed race, in which the Malay blend predominates, with the Indonesian type secondary. Practically all live in Ifugao Subprovince, north-central Luzon, with a few in the contiguous parts of Nueva Vizcaya Province.

The Igorót number approximately 61,000 and are essentially of the Indonesian type. They occupy Benguet, Lepanto, and Amburayan Subprovinces, in north-central Luzon, with a few in contiguous parts of Nueva Vizcaya, Nueva Ecija, Pangasinan, La Union, and Ilocos Sur Provinces.

The Ilóko are the third largest Philippine group, numbering approximately 990,000. They are chiefly of the Malay type and occupy Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, and La Union Provinces, along the western coast of northern Luzon, and have colonized extensively in Cagayan, Isabela, Nueva Vizcaya, Pangasinan, Zambales, Tarlac, and Nueva Ecija Provinces, Luzon.

The Ilongót are predominantly of the Indonesian type, number approximately 6,000, and occupy portions of Nueva Vizcaya Province, north-central Luzon.

The Isámal are of a mixed Indonesian type, number approximately 1,000, and occupy the Samal Islands in Davao Gulf, southeastern Mindanao.

The Isinái, predominantly of the Malay type and numbering approximately 2,600, are almost exclusively confined to the towns of Aritao, Bambang, and Dupax, in Nueva Vizcaya Province, north-central Luzon.

The Ivatán number approximately 6,400 and occupy the Batan Islands between Luzon and Formosa. They are physically of the Malay blend with a strong mixture of the Mongol and the Ainu types.

The Kalínga, largely of the Indonesian type, number approximately 68,000 and occupy for the most part Kalinga Subprovince, north-central Luzon; some of them live in adjacent parts of Cagayan Province.

The Kuláman, chiefly of the Indonesian type and numbering approximately 3,600, inhabit the coastal regions of Sarangani Peninsula and the eastern side of Davao Gulf, southeastern Mindanao.

The Kuyónon number approximately 12,000 and occupy the Calamian and Cuyo Islands between Mindoro and Palawan; they have colonized in certain parts of Palawan. They are more or less of the Malay blend, with the Indonesian element predominating. Two dialects are included here besides the Kuyónon proper; these are the Kalamián, spoken in Busuanga and neighboring islands, and the special dialect known as Agutaína, spoken on Agutaya Island in the Cuyo group.

The Lánao number approximately 80,000; in physical type they are of the Malay blend with the Indonesian element predominant. They occupy the region around Lake Lanao, Lanao Province, Mindanao.

The Magindanáo number approximately 80,000; the predominating physical type is the Malay blend, but with an Indonesian element. They occupy Cotabato Province, Mindanao, and a few of them live in adjacent parts of Lanao and Zamboanga Provinces.

The Mandáya number approximately 25,000 and occupy the area east and north of Davao Gulf, Davao Province, southeastern Mindanao. They are largely of pure Indonesian stock.

The Mangguángan, a primarily Indonesian people, inhabit the upper Agusan Valley in Mindanao. They number approximately

2,500, though thousands of them have for many generations been enslaved by the Manobos, Mandayas, and other peoples, and are included in those groups. They are almost purely of the short Mongol type, with probably slight intermixture with the other primitive types, especially the Negrito.

The Mañgyán number approximately 13,000 and occupy the whole of the interior forested region of Mindoro; a few of them live on Tablas Island. They are in part of the short Mongol type with a considerable Negrito mixture, and in part predominantly Indonesian with some Malay blend.

The Manóbo number approximately 40,000 and inhabit chiefly the Agusan River Valley in northeastern Mindanao, with some in Surigao, Bukidnon, Davao, and Cotabato Provinces. Most of them are of the Malay type but with some Indonesian admixture.

The Negrito, a negroid group, number approximately 35,000. Most of them live in the mountain ranges on the north, east, and west coasts of Luzon; there is a small group in northern Palawan, another of considerable size in northeastern Mindanao, and a smaller number in the mountains of central Negros and in central Panay. The Negritos are racially very distinct from the other inhabitants of the Philippines, being characterized largely by their small stature, curly hair, and negroid features. They are the most primitive people found in the Philippines—so primitive that they have, so far as known, lost their original language, and always speak the language of the Malaysian or Indonesian peoples with whom they are in closest contact.

The Pampángan number approximately 340,000 and occupy Pampanga Province, Luzon, and about one-third of Tarlac Province. They are predominantly of the Malay type.

The Pangasinán number approximately 380,000 and occupy chiefly Pangasinan Province, Luzon; a few live in northern Tarlac, northeastern Nueva Ecija, and southern La Union. They are essentially of the Malay type.

The Sambáli number approximately 56,000 and occupy Zambales Province, western central Luzon; some of them live in western Pangasinan. They were originally of a pure Indonesian type, but are now considerably blended with other groups.

The Sámal number approximately 78,000 and are found chiefly on the smaller islands, along the coast of all of the larger islands throughout the Sulu Archipelago, and a considerable portion of the coast along both sides of Zamboanga Peninsula, Mindanao.

In physical type they are a Malay blend composed of practically every racial type to be found in southeastern Asia and Oceanica.

The Subánun number approximately 32,000 and occupy the interior of the whole Zamboanga Peninsula, western Mindanao. They are predominantly of the Indonesian type.

The Súlu number approximately 90,000 and occupy principally Jolo Island and most of the other larger islands of the Sulu Archipelago, Cagayan Sulu Island, and southern Palawan. In physical type they are a complicated Malay blend.

The Tagaká-ólo number approximately 7,000 and occupy the interior of Sarangani Peninsula and the west coast of Davao Gulf, southeastern Mindanao. They are in physical type a Malay blend with the Indonesian element predominating.

The Tagálog number approximately 1,700,000, form the second largest Philippine group, and are the highest in cultural development. Their predominating physical type is the Malay blend. The great majority of the Tagalog are found in the central part of Luzon, where they form the greatest part of the population in Tayabas, Batangas, Cavite, Laguna, Rizal, Bataan, Bulacan, and Nueva Ecija Provinces, as well as the City of Manila; considerable numbers are also found in Camarines Norte, Tarlac, southern Zambales, Marinduque Island, northern Masbate, and the coastal region of the northern two-thirds of Mindoro.

The Tagbanúa number approximately 20,000 and occupy the mountainous interior of Palawan Island; there are a few in the Calamian group. Physically, they are predominantly of the Indonesian type.

The Tinggián number approximately 27,000 and occupy Abra Subprovince and the border districts of surrounding provinces—Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Amburayan, Lepanto, Kalinga, and Apayao. They are largely a Malay blend of the Burmese type.

The Tirurái number approximately 7,000 and occupy the interior of southern Cotabato Province, Mindanao. They are predominantly of the short Mongol type with some Indonesian mixture.

The Yakán number approximately 7,300 and occupy most of the interior of Basilan. In physical type they are now much mixed, but are essentially a Malay blend.

In addition to the languages and dialects indicated above, the abbreviation "Sp." is used for Spanish, which has supplied numerous local names of plants, while the abbreviation "Chab." for Chabacáno has been used for the mixed dialect spoken in the vicinity of Zamboanga, a language made up of elements from most parts of the Philippines, with a considerable infusion of Spanish words.

THE PHILIPPINE ALPHABET

This discussion of the Philippine alphabet is contributed by Mr. E. E. Schneider, formerly of the Philippine Bureau of Forestry. It was originally published in "The Mountain Echo," the quarterly issued by the division of investigation of the Bureau of Forestry, and was revised by the author for reproduction here.

In trying to establish a fixed and uniform system of spelling for all the languages of the Islands (an object the desirability of which hardly any one will deny) the Philippines have one very great advantage over many—one might almost say all—more-advanced countries, in that there does not yet exist, on the one hand, any hard and fast practice in regard to orthography nor, on the other hand, any very radical difference between one language and another. It would be extremely difficult, not to say impossible, to devise a system of spelling that would serve for English, Russian, French, and German, but it would not be at all difficult to construct a very simple and adequate alphabet that would serve at once for Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian, or one for Dutch, German, and Swedish. The languages of the Philippines mutually resemble each other as closely as do the three Latin or the three Germanic languages named, and for this reason there would be no trouble in formulating an alphabet serviceable for every language from Aparri to Jolo.

In trying to formulate an alphabet, the ideal rule is that every distinct sound should be represented by a separate symbol and that no symbol should ever be used for more than one sound. Most alphabets in use are very far from conforming to this rule and the best ones (among them Spanish and German) are only approximations to it. It is a common boast of Spaniards that their language is written exactly as it is pronounced; but, if you only heard the word *Ceta,* could you tell whether you should spell it with *c, s,* or *z?* Ceta is a province in Spain, *seta* an edible mushroom, and *zeta* the name of the letter *z.* Here are three different letters used to represent one sound. It is true that *zeta* should be pronounced as "theta" (English spelling), but only about one-tenth of the population of Spain pronounce it so. On the other hand, *c* also represents the same sound as *qu* and *k,* while *h* represents—no sound at all! Such inconsistencies, in Spanish and all other languages, are due to the fact that both the languages and the alphabets are the result of centuries of growth and change and that the alphabets, mostly very imperfect in their beginnings, have never completely kept even pace with the changes in the languages. Moreover, the slight shades of pronunciation between different words, or the same words in slightly different dialects, can never be represented by symbols unless we increase these to an inconveniently great amount. European philologists have devised alphabets by which they can represent, with a close degree of approximation, any word in any language, but such alphabets consist of forty, fifty, and even sixty letters.

Besides the advantages above mentioned, the Philippine languages have one other; namely, that their sound system is a fairly simple one. They have (not taking into account long and short vowels—a distinction that we may omit for our present purpose) only seven or eight vowel sounds and about twenty consonants, all of which can be represented by the simple letters of the Roman alphabet with the addition of only two or three digraphs and two or three foreign vowels.

Let us now look over, letter by letter, what we may call not a Tagalog, nor Bikol, nor Bisaya, but a Philippine alphabet.

SIMPLE VOWELS

A. Except for the difference between long and short *a*, this is very constant in quality, ranging from *a* in English "father," to *a* in German "Ratte" (rat).

E is comparatively rare in the Philippine languages; the tendency of most Spanish and some Filipino authors has been to use this letter too much. I have found *e* frequently (especially as a final letter) in places where I know from many years of hearing the spoken language that the sound is that of *i*. However, it is common in some languages; in Pampangan, for instance, the Bikol-Bisaya termination *-oi*, and Tagalog-Iloko *-ai*, quite regularly becomes long *e*, as in Bikol and Bisaya *pároi*, Tagalog and Iloko *pálai, págai*, Pampangan *pále*. Initially, *e* is very rare; Lisboa * cites only two or three words beginning with *e* and fifteen with *he*, of the latter of which at least one-half are nowadays pronounced with initial *hi*.

I. Next to *e*, *i* is the rarest of the five Roman vowels in the Philippine languages. It varies little in quality, and ranges in quantity from the long *i* in "machine" to the short *i* in "sit."

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* Vocabulario de la Lengua Bicol.

O. The pure *o* sound is comparatively rare; the letter has been used entirely too much by even the most careful among the Spanish writers. This is discussed further under the diphthongs and under *U*.

Ö. The sound represented by this symbol is a fairly common one, but has been completely left out of account by all Spanish and Filipino writers; it is approximately the sound of *e* in "her," *o* in "son," and *u* in "but." Words containing this sound have almost invariably been written with either *e* or *o* to represent it. It is common in Pampangan; for example, *kapös* (accent on last syllable) is gapas or kapok, the common cotton tree; in Iloko, for example, in *kamáñgög*, the yam known in Laguna as pakit (*Dioscorea luzonensis*), and in the termination *-ön*, corresponding to the Tagalog *-in* and Bikol-Bisaya *-on;* in Subánön, the language of the people of the same name, who have been called Subanos, Subanons, and Subanuns by Spanish and American writers; in at least one local dialect of Bikol (in the Iriga district of Camarines) where Bikol *kosóg*, "strength," becomes *kösög*.

U. Next to *a*, *u* is the commonest vowel sound and, with *a*, forms what is probably the most used of the diphthongs, except perhaps *ai*. There is a very large number of words in many, perhaps all, Philippine languages which contain a sound intermediate between *o* and *u;* for this sound at least one American author who has made a very careful study of Tagalog uses a *u* with a tiny *o* inside it. Omitting any special symbols for this "between-*o*-and-*u*" sound, it is impossible to make any fixed rule, but it may be safely said that, where there is any doubt at all, *u* will generally represent the true sound better than *o*. This is further mentioned under *W* and *AU*.

Ü. The sound designated by this is harder to describe in English than that of *ö*, for it does not occur in the English language. It is the German *ü*, French and Dutch *u*. It is the rarest of the vowel sounds discussed in this article.

Y. As a pure vowel, *y* is absolutely unnecessary; its semi-consonantal value in the combinations *ia, ie, io,* and *iu* is discussed under diphthongs. It should not be used in the diphthongs *ai, oi, ui*.

DIPHTHONGS

AI. This needs no comment; it has always the value of English *i*.

AO, AU. The first of these should not be used to represent a diphthongal sound; the sound, often in the middle of words, and always at the end, that Spanish writers have represented by *ao,* all other European writers have represented by *au* or its orthographic equivalents; the English and Germans by *au;* the Dutch, *aoe* (in Dutch *oe* represents the Latin *u*-sound, the letter *u* having a different value); the French, by *aou* (French *ou* representing Latin *u*); and so on. The only word I can call to mind which should be spelled with a final *ao* is the tribal name Ifugao, where it is not a diphthong, the name being pronounced Ifuga-o, as in the almost universal Philippine *tao,* "man." Whether Apayao is correct or not, I am not sure.

EI. Next to *ue, ei* is probably the rarest diphthong, as regards the languages of the Philippines in general, but it is not uncommon in Iloko and some of the other languages of northern Luzon.

EU. This occurs in some words, but in most places where I have seen it, it was undoubtedly a Hispanicism, authors accustomed to Spanish orthography being unable to conceive such a combination as *iu,* much less *iw,* as some modern Filipino writers spell it. I have heard *ragiudíu* (the name of a sedge) pronounced with a broadening of the *i* that approached *rageudéu.* Also, *eu* occurs not infrequently in plant names from the Mountain Province.

IA. Common, as in *tadiang, galiang.*

IE. Rare, as in *pan͠gadié* (Bikol), "to pray."

IO. Common, as in *bágio,* "storm." It should not be used in place of *iu* (see below); *o* has no more place there than in the commonly used *ao* for *au.* Such a form as *bario-án* for *bariu'an* is simply absurd.

IU. This has two values, one where the weight falls on the *i,* as in *ragiudíu,* name of a sedge, and one where the weight is on the *u,* as in *pukiútan,* "bee."

For strict uniformity, the four diphthongs above should always be written with *i;* but there is one practical objection to this; namely, the average reader, seeing such a form as *iakal,* would be very likely to think it should be pronounced in three syllables, as *i-a-kál;* it is, therefore, merely for practical considerations, permissible (one might even say advisable) to write with *y* all these four diphthongs when they are initial.

OI. Very common in most languages; it runs sometimes into *ui* (as *o* does into *u*), as in *manggachapói, daloidói,* which are probably more commonly pronounced *manggachapúi, daluidúi.*

UA. Common, as in *uák, lauáan.*

UE. Very rare; Lisboa cites one single word beginning with *ue,* and I cannot think of ever having seen or heard it elsewhere in Bikol or any other language, except in the Iloko name of guijo (*Shorea guiso*), *kuriuét,* which perhaps should have been written *kuriuöt.*

UI. This, like *iu,* has two values, one in which the weight falls on the first component, as in *chapúi,* and one in which it is on the second as in *tuid,* "straight," or *láuig,* "far." Where there seems any doubt as to how the average reader might pronounce the word, the simplest way out of the difficulty might seem to be to write an accent over the *u* or *i* as the case may be, but this would lead to confusion as to the tonic accent of the whole word. The word cited above, *láuig,* serves as an illustration; the tonic accent in this word is on the first syllable, as shown here by the written accent; therefore, we cannot write another accent on the *u* or the *i,* for the accent on the *a* is necessary to show that the word is not *laúig* or *lauíg.* So this leads again to a conclusion similar to that in the case of the diphthongs beginning with *i;* namely, that, to show at once the tonic accent and to avoid some other, unfamiliar symbol to distinguish between *úi* and *uí,* we must take refuge in the use of *w* in such cases and write *láwig.*

UO. Common in Bikol and many Bisaya dialects; it occurs most commonly where a word ending in *au* has the termination *-on* (equal Tagalog *-in*), as *anaháuon* from *anahau.* Initially, it is extremely rare; Lisboa gives only five words beginning with *uo* and Merrill* only one (also Bikol, *uós, Sterculia oblongata*), and in this word the *uo* is not a diphthong, the pronunciation being distinctly dissyllabic, as *u-ós.*

TRIPHTHONGS

Besides the numerous diphthongs, there are a few triphthongs; they are:

IAI. Rare; example: Bikol *úiai,* "to long for."

IAU. Rather common; example: *pakiáu,* "contract."

UAI. Frequent; examples: *uái,* "rattan," *baliñguái,* a climbing plant (*Flagellaria indica*) resembling the rattans.

UAU. Rather common; example: *kuáu* (Bicol), a bird of the owl family.

UOI. Rather common; example: *líuoi* (Bikol, equal Tagalog *láuai*), "slime, mucus."

In the triphthongs, all of which begin with either *i* or *u,* it will often be advisable to use initial *y* and *w,* for the same reason assigned in the case of the diphthongs beginning with *i* and *u.*

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* A Dictionary of the Plant names of the Philippine Islands, P. I. Bur. Govt. Lab. No. 8 (1903) 116.

CONSONANTS

B. Care should be taken not to confuse the sounds of *b* and *v*, one of the commonest errors among Spanish authors and, unfortunately, some Filipinos and Americans who blindly followed their example. "Vicol" and "Visaya" are common in Spanish literature and the United States Army to this day calls the central part of the Archipelago "Department of Visayas."

C, CH. The first is unnecessary in the Philippine languages, as, in fact, it would be in any scientific alphabet, for its place can everywhere be taken by *k* or *s*. Except in Spanish or other foreign words, it has no place at all in Philippine plant names. Especially, it should never be used where followed by *h*, where it leads to confusion; I have several times heard *ha-gac-hac'* pronounced *ha-ga-chák* and once, when I saw *ducha* in print, I could not at first tell whether it was the Tagalog and Bikol *dukhá*, "poor," or the Spanish *ducha*, "shower-bath!" Therefore, *c* should never be used except, as said above, in foreign words and in the digraph *ch*, which occurs both in foreign and local names, *kalachúche* (from Mexican) and *cha* (from Chinese) being good examples of foreign, and *chapúi* of local names. Care should be taken also to note carefully if your informant says *cha* or *tsa;* it is quite probable that in many cases collectors have written *manggachapúi* where they should really have used *ts*.

D. This needs no comment, except that it should be remarked that, if your informant speaks rapidly, it is often easy to confuse a slurred *d* with *r*.

F. On the whole, *f* is very rare in the Philippines, but note that in certain positions it regularly replaces *p* in Ibanak and is also common in some of the languages of Mindanao, such as Bilá'an and Tirurái.

G. This should never be used with any value but that in "game," "get," "begin," "go," "gun." Do not follow the Spanish rule of writing *gu* before *e* and *i*. Who, not being a native of Benguet and not knowing what system of spelling the collector used, can tell whether the name *pasguik* * should be pronounced *pasghik* or *pasgwik?*

N͠G. This digraph represents a simple sound and it is most unfortunate that the various European alphabets directly derived from the Roman have no simple symbol for it. Its use in English is ambiguous; in "finger" and "anger" it stands for two sounds, *ng* followed by hard *g;* in "hanging" and "singing" it stands for the simple sound. In the Philippine languages there exist three possible combinations of sounds represented by the letters *n* and *g:* *n* + *g*, *n͠g*, and *n͠gg*. Let us assume for a moment, for the sake of simplicity, that the word *gauá*, "work," exists in all our languages and not only in Tagalog. Generally, before words beginning with *g*, the prefix *man* becomes *man͠g*, as in Tagalog, but in Ifugao it would remain *man*, forming *mangagauá*, instead of Tagalog *man͠g-gagauá*, "worker." This occurrence of *n* + *g* is apparently rare. Next is the *n͠g*, commonest in the almost universal plural prefix *mán͠ga;* and finally *n͠gg*, as in *mán͠gga*, the mango fruit. It will be seen that, to prevent the possibility of error on the part of the reader, it is necessary always to write the tilde (a Spanish term for which English has no equivalent in this sense) over the *n͠g*, and also always to write the second *g* in words like *man͠gga*. The neglect of this leads to such errors as the following: Collectors in Tayabas and Mindoro, on specimens of *Elaeocarpus calomala*, wrote the local names *ungo* and *hungo* with nothing to indicate the pronunciation; consequently they were printed as un͠gó and hun͠go;[*] since then I have found [†] the name *honggó*, described as a large tree with an edible fruit, leaving practically no doubt that it is the same word, though not necessarily applied to *Elaeocarpus calomala*. Unfortunately, Lisboa introduced one innovation which the Bikols use to this day; namely, the use of *g̃n*, with the tilde on the *g*, for initial *n͠g;* as he used it only initially, it led to the absurd consequence of his writing *sírang* with its derivative, *sirág̃nan, the g̃n* being, according to Spanish orthography, here considered as the initial consonant of the last syllable. To this is due the spelling of Sagnay, name of a town in Camarines, which generally puzzles foreigners and, when written without the tilde over the *g*, even Filipinos of other provinces. European writers on Malayan languages use an *n* with a single dot over it; and one American author has devised a new symbol, an *n* with a curved tail like that of *y* (ŋ), a very simple and suggestive representation of *n͠g*.

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* Bull. P. I. Bur. Forestry 22^2 (1921) 105.

H needs no comment.

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[*] Bull. P. I. Bur. Forestry 22^{1} (1920) 381.

[†] Lisboa, Vocabulario de la Lengua Bicol. Lisboa distinguished very carefully between *n͠g* and *n͠gg*.

J. This should never be used as the Spanish *jota,* except in Spanish names, such as *jasmin.* It is rather common, with a value almost exactly like English *j,* in the Batan dialect and some of the languages of Mindanao, though in the latter the sound is said to be more like French *j,* or English *z* in "azure." To be strictly accurate, we should use *j* only with its English value, as in Ivatan and, where the softer sound occurs, use the digraph *zh.* It may be that the Subanön names beginning with *z* mentioned below were attempts to represent the *zh* sound.

K needs no comment.

L, LL. The first needs no comment, but it must be noted that the second should never be used as the Spanish *ll* (elye) except in undoubtedly Spanish words. Double *l* is not uncommon in the languages of northern Luzon, especially in Iloko, as for instance in *kollokollót,* the Iloko name of *Urena lobata.* However, when a collector in Pangasinan or one of the Iloko provinces writes *callót,* local name of yakal, we know from various other records that he is simply spelling a Philippine word, *kalĭót,* in Spanish fashion. See also remarks on this under the hyphen, page 43.

M, N, and **P** need no comment.

Qu is unnecessary in a Philippine alphabet; it should only be used in plant names undoubtedly foreign.

R, S, and **T** need no comment.

SH is said to occur in Mindanao in words of Arabic derivation.

V occurs in the language of the Batanes, in Bilá'an, Tirurái, and perhaps some of the other Mindanao languages.

W. The use of this is a much disputed point; for my own purposes, I have practically discarded it. The "Tagalistas" and journalists of Manila, who make much parade of reforming Tagalog spelling, do not follow any uniform rule as to its use. Many of them insist on writing *áraw, kalabáw,* yet continue to write *kuan* with a *u;* the familiar negative command can be seen in Manila newspapers as *huag, huuag,* and *huwag!* In the very frequent termination *-au* (see Diphthongs, *AU*) I do not think it has any place at all. As to its use in place of initial *u,* see the diphthongs beginning with that letter.

X is unnecessary.

Z has been much abused by the Spaniards; for example, in "Zambales" and "Zamboanga," properly Sambales and Samboanga, but it has a distinct place, with exactly the value of English *z,* in Ibanak. I have also seen *z* in two Subanön plant names, but rather doubt the correctness of its use, as the letter does not occur in the several hundred words cited by Christie.*

'. There remains one sound to be considered which has been probably the source of more misunderstandings than any other one in the Philippine languages; namely, the "glottal check," a rather sharp closure of the larynx preceding or following a vowel. No Spanish author that I know of has treated of it except as an "accent." It is a thing quite distinct from accent, being a distinct and separate consonantal sound and not a manner of enunciating a vowel. In the majority of European languages, the sound occurs, but is not so distinct as in many languages of the Orient, consequently the Roman alphabet and those directly derived from it have never acquired a separate letter for it. In Arabic, the sound is distinct and important, as in most Philippine languages, and the Arabic has a symbol for it, called "hamzat." European writers, in representing the pronunciation of Arabic and Malaysian words, very generally represent hamzat by the apostrophe, an example that has been followed in all the bulletins of the Bureau of Forestry since 1916. Its use is well illustrated by two Bikol words, *sálong*, "resin," and sal'óng, "yoke."

ACCENTS

Most of the Spanish writers on Philippine languages used three different written "accents," the acute, the grave, and the circumflex. Not only was their system unnecessary, but they further encumbered it by giving the grave accent the double signification of "tonic accent (that is, stress on a syllable) *plus* glottal check," as in Bikol *batá'*, "stench," which they would write *batà;* the same letters, changing the accent, give Tagalog *báta'*, "child." For all practical purposes, only one written accent is necessary for Philippine orthography; namely, the acute accent on the stressed or "accented" syllable of all words of more than one syllable. If a Tagalog is writing to a fellow Tagalog, ordinarily speaking he does not need to use any accents at all, as in English also we do not use written accents; but when we are collecting contributions to a list of words from a large number of languages and dialects, as is the case in recording Philippine plant names, it is highly necessary that not only the spelling but the accentuation be carefully designated.

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* Christie, E. B., The Subanuns of Sindangan Bay, Bur. Sci. Div. Ethn. Publ. **6** ^{1} (1909).

As every Filipino knows, the accentuation may completely change the meaning of a certain combination of letters. Thus, if *bata* occurs in a letter from a friend the context will infallibly tell you whether he meant "child" or "stench," but plant names are recorded without an accompanying context. To use again the Bikol example cited above: If *sálong* be recorded as a plant name, it will be evident that it applies to a resinous tree; if you write *sal'óng,* we might guess it was perhaps a tree too crooked to make anything but yokes; but suppose you write simply *salong* (with no accent at all), and some one knowing nothing of the word tries to find the same species of resinous tree, inquiring of the people in the vicinity for *salóng*—he will have a hard time finding it and probably be well laughed at by the rude woodsmen.

THE HYPHEN

It is a good plan to use the hyphen in all regularly reduplicated forms, such as *taua-taua,* especially when this separation is at once an aid to the reader in quickly comprehending the pronunciation; *ilang-ilang* and *ilo-ilo* are much clearer to the eye than *ilangilang* and *iloilo.* Also the hyphen should regularly be used in all forms recognized as words compounded of two separate elements; for example, *matáng-uláng, bolóng-éta,* etc. It is not necessary, in fact it is confusing, to use a hyphen to separate double letters, as in *kol-lokol-lot,* a practice rather common among Spaniards and Filipinos, undoubtedly with the object of distinguishing Iloko double *l* from Spanish *ll* (elye). Once the rule is firmly established that in certain Philippine languages there is a double *l* and in Spanish only an *ll* (elye), we will have no difficulty in distinguishing between the former in *kollokollot* and the latter in Spanish *culantrillo.*

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF PHILIPPINE BOTANY

The history of Philippine botany may be conveniently divided into two periods; namely, pre-Linnaean, previous to the publication of the Species Plantarum by Linnaeus in 1753, and post-Linnaean. The latter period may be considered under three more or less distinct heads.

THE PRE-LINNAEAN PERIOD

The first period is characterized by the preparation of various manuscripts by local authors, chiefly of a more or less economic nature, and largely works on medicinal plants. These works, some of which were published during the period under discussion, some not published until late in the second period, and still others as yet unpublished, were largely the work of Spanish priests and from a strictly botanical standpoint are of comparatively little value.

The first reference to Philippine botany that I have observed is a description of *Anisum philippinarum insularum* = *Illicium* sp. by Clusius.* Descriptions of about ten Philippine species, including the first description of the abacá plant, were published by Nieremberg † in 1635, under their local names. In 1611 Father Blas, a Franciscan priest, wrote a treatise on indigenous medicinal plants, which was apparently never published. In 1669 Father José de Valencia completed a manuscript entitled Flora Filipina; en la que con minuciosidad se describen las raíces y hierbas, sus figuras, sitios donde se crían, y sus virtudes medicinales; this was never published. In 1668 Father Alcina, a Jesuit priest, wrote an extensive manuscript entitled Historia natural del sitio, fertilidad y calidad de las islas e indios de Visayas. This work was never published, but a manuscript copy of one of the two volumes of it, prepared in 1802, is in the library of the Ateneo de Manila. In 1712 Father Clain, a Jesuit priest, published his work entitled Remedios fáciles para diferentes enfermedades. In 1768 Father Fernando de Santa Maria published his work, Manual de medicinas caseras, which has passed through several editions; the latest is that of 1885.

Between 1751 and 1754 Father J. Delgado, a Jesuit priest, wrote his general history of the Philippines which was, however, not published until 1892.‡ Book five, pages 405 to 807, deals with the vegetable kingdom, and the technical names were added by Father Fernandez-Villar; the identifications indicated by Fernandez-Villar are very untrustworthy, and many of them are wholly erroneous. During the last half of the sixteenth century Father Mercado prepared his work, Libro de medicinas de esta tierra y declaraciones de las virtudes de los árboles y plantas que están en estas Islas Filipinas. This was published in the fourth volume of the third edition of Blanco's

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* Clusius, C., Rariorum plantarum historia (1601).

† Nieremberg, J. E., Historia naturae maxime peregrinae libris XVI distincta (1635) 1–502.

‡ Delgado, J., Historia general sacro-profana, política y natural de las islas del poniente llamadas Filipinas. Manila (1892) XVI + 1–1009.

Flora de Filipinas in 1880. The technical names added by Fernandez-Villar must be used with caution.

The only purely technical work prepared and published during this period was that of Kamel.* The manuscript, drawings, and specimens were sent to James Petiver in London in 1701, and the specimens are still preserved in the herbarium of the British Museum, in volumes 153, 163, 165, 231, and 233 of the Sloane herbarium. The drawings submitted by Kamel were not reproduced, which probably explains why the work was not considered by Linnaeus. At about the same time Petiver published figures of a number of Philippine plants based either on drawings or on specimens sent to him by Father Kamel.† There are about twenty references to Philippine plants in Rumphius's Herbarium Amboinense, published in 1741 to 1755, but written in the last part of the previous century.‡

In general, the pre-Linnaean publications on Philippine botany are few and for the most part unimportant. Very few binomials were based on Philippine references by Linnaeus, his contemporaries, or successors, and hence the importance of these early works is pratically nil in reference to questions of nomenclature and the history of individual species. The most that can be claimed for them is a slight historic value, chiefly in reference to the approximate time of introduction of various economic plants.

THE POST-LINNAEAN PERIOD

The post-Linnaean period, dating from the establishment of the binomial system of nomenclature in 1753, may be roughly divided into three sections; the first from 1753 to about 1870, the second from about 1870 to 1898, and the third from 1898 to 1923.

The first section is characterized by the dominance of the Linnaean system of classification, which in the history of Philippine botany extends into the second section in the publication of the third edition of Blanco's Flora de Filipinas (1877–1883). The second section commencing in about 1870 covers the modernization of Philippine botany, the abandonment of the long-obsolete Linnaean system of classification, and the adoption of modern herbarium methods, due largely to the influence of Sebastian Vidal. The period of local productive work practically closed in 1886, little of value being produced after that date up to the end of the Spanish rule in 1898. The third section covers the time of the American administration, actual botanical work having been initiated in 1902 and vigorously prosecuted up to the present date (1924).

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* Kamel (Camel, Camellus), J. G., Herbarium aliarumque stirpium in insula luzone Philippinarum primaria nascentium * * * in Ray, J. Historia Plantarum **3** (1704) Suppl. 1–96.

† Petiver, J., Gazophylacii naturae & artis * * * (1702–1709).

‡ See Merrill, E. D., An Interpretation of Rumphius's Herbarium Amboinense, Bur. Sci. Publ. **9** (1917) 1–595.

THE PERIOD FROM 1753 TO 1870

Linnaeus included a very few references to the earlier Philippine literature in the first edition of his Species Plantarum, chiefly citations of a few figures of Philippine plants from Petiver's works with still fewer references to Kamel's work. He had no Philippine botanical material. Thus, although but slightly, the Philippines figures in the first published work on the binomial system and, consequently, in the later editions of this basic Linnaean publication, both those issued by Linnaeus and those issued by his successors. No considerable amount of botanical material of Philippine origin reached Europe until about the close of the eighteenth century. From the publication of the Willdenow edition of the Species Plantarum (1797–1830) references to Philippine species became increasingly numerous in the general botanical works of a systematic nature published in Europe, such as those of Persoon, Roemer and Schultes, Sprengel, Dietrich, Kunth, Don, etc., as well as in the series of monographs commenced by A. P. de Candolle in the Prodromus in 1824.

There was no local activity in the botanical field until 1837 when the first edition of Blanco's Flora de Filipinas was published,* which was followed by a second edition in 1845, issued a few months after the author's death. The third edition of Blanco's flora belongs to the next period. Blanco's pioneer work was continued, although not very successfully, by Father A. Llanos, who published a series of papers, for the most part short and unimportant, in the period 1851 to 1875, the most important of which was his Fragmentos.† The work of Blanco and of

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* Blanco, M., Flora de Filipinas según el sistema sexual de Linneo (1837) LXXVIII+1–887; ed. 2 (1845) LIX+1–619; ed. 3, 1 (1877) XXX+1–350; 2 (1878–79) 1–419; 3 (1879) 1–271; 4^1 (1880) XVIII+1–808; 4^2 (1880) VI+1–63; 4^3 (1880–83) IX+375, *t. 1–473.*

† Llanos, A., Fragmentos de algunas plantas de Filipinas, no incluidas en la Flora de las Islas de la 1.ª ni 2.ª edición (1851) 1–125.

Llanos has been rather exhaustively considered in another publication,* so that it is unnecessary to enter into details here.

In 1858 a botanical garden was established in Manila; while maintained until the end of the Spanish régime, it never attained prominence and was a botanical garden chiefly in name. It is now a small city park.

During the period under discussion various exploring expeditions sent out by different nations visited the Philippines and some extensive botanical collections were made. Several collectors also visited the Archipelago for the express purpose of securing botanical and other natural-history material.

The first visitor to the Philippines for the specific purpose of conducting natural-history work was Pierre Sonnerat who arrived in Cavite in September, 1771, and sailed from Zamboanga in February, 1772. Sonnerat made fairly extensive collections of botanical material, chiefly in central Luzon, and a large part of his published report is in reference to Philippine matters.† His botanical collections are preserved in the Lamarck herbarium now in the Paris Museum of Natural History.

The first large scientific exploring expedition to reach the Philippines was the Malaspina Expedition ‡ sent out by the Spanish government. Two active and energetic botanists accompanied this expedition; namely, Thaddeus Haenke and Luis Née, and both made extensive collections. The Malaspina Expedition was in the Philippines from March to December, 1792; most of the field work was done in Luzon, and the island was traversed throughout its length. While the botanical collections exceeded in amount and value those of any other similar expedition visiting the Philippines, much of it still remains unidentified, this being especially the case with Née's collections at Madrid. A few species were described from Née's Philippine material by Cavanilles,§ and still fewer by Lagasca and by Née himself.

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* Merrill, E. D., Species Blancoanae. A critical revision of the Philippine species of plants described by Blanco and by Llanos, Bur. Sci. Publ. 12 (1918) 1–423, map.

† Sonnerat, P., Voyage a la Nouvelle Guinée (1776) XVI+1–202, *t. 1–120.*

‡ Novo y Colson, P., Viaje político-científico alrededor del mundo por las corbatas Descubierta y Atrevida al mando de los capitanes de navío D. Alejandro Malaspina y Don José de Bustamante y Guerra desde 1789 a 1794 (1885) XXXI+1–681, *t. 1–7*, map.

§ Cavanilles, A. J., Icones et descriptiones plantarum, quae aut sponte in Hispania crescent, aut in hortis hospitantur 1–6 (1791–1801), *t. 1–600.* There are a few Philippine references in other works by Cavanilles.

Much of Haenke's material was studied by Presl, and numerous species were described by him.* At the time the Malaspina Expedition was in the Philippines it is evident that considerable local interest in botany developed, but this interest was only temporary.†

The Romanzoff Expedition was the next to reach the Archipelago; its botanist was A. von Chamisso.‡ Considerable botanical material was collected in Luzon, chiefly in Cavite and Batangas Provinces, from December 17, 1817, to January 29, 1818, and is now preserved in the Berlin Herbarium.

In the latter part of 1818 S. Perrottet visited the Philippines on *Le Rhone;* he made extensive observations on Philippine economic plants and collected considerable botanical material. His results were published in 1824.§

Gaudichaud ‖ collected in the Philippines in 1836 and 1837 as botanist on *La Bonite;* his material is preserved in the herbarium of the Paris Museum.

In 1831 F. J. F. Meyen, botanist on the voyage of the Prussian expedition of the *Prinzess Louise,* under Captain Wendt, visited the Philippines and collected botanical material in Rizal (at San Mateo and Montalban) and Laguna Provinces (at Jala Jala),

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* Presl, C. B., Reliquiae Haenkeanae, seu descriptiones et icones plantarum, quas in America meridionale et boreali, in insulis Philippinis et Marianis collegit Thaddeus Haenke 1 (1825–30) XV+1–356, *t. 1–48,* 2 (1831–35) 1–152, *t. 49–72.*

† Merrill, E. D., The Pineda monument and the probable site of the first Botanic Garden in the Philippines, Philip. Journ. Sci. 7 (1912) Bot. 363–371, *t. 22.*

‡ Chamisso, A von, Reise um die Welt mit der Romanzoffischen Entdeckungs-Expedition in den Jahren 1815–18 auf der Brigg Rurik 1 (1836) 1–436; 2 (1836) 1–396; Chamisso, A. von, and D. von Schlechtendal, De plantis in expeditione speculatoria Romanzoffiana observatis rationem dicunt, Linnaea 1 (1826) 1–73 through all volumes to 10 (1836) 582–603; Kotzebue, O. von, Entdeckungs Reise in die Süd-See und nach der Berings-Strasse * * * Unternommen in * * * 1815–1818 * * * auf dem Schiffe Rurik 1–3 (1821).

§ Perrottet, S., Catalogue raissoné des plantes introduites dans les colonies françaises de Mascareigne et de Cayenne, et de celles rapportées vivantes des mers d'Asie et de la Guyane, au Jardin des Plantes de Paris, Mém. Soc. Linn. Paris 3 (1824) 89–151; *see also* C. B. Robinson, Perrottet and the Philippines, Philip. Journ. Sci. 3 (1909) Bot. 303–306.

‖ Gaudichaud-Beaupre, C., Voyage autour du monde executé pendent les années 1836 et 1837 sur la Corvette la Bonite comandée par M. Vaillant—Historie naturelle. Botanique 1 (1844–46) *t. 1–150,* text (1851) 1–355; 2 (1851) 1–444; explanation of the plates by C. d'Alizette (1866) 1–187.

Luzon, from September 14 to October 15. Philippine species to a considerable number, based on Meyen's material, have been described by various botanists.*

In 1843 the Archipelago was visited by the Wilkes United States Exploring Expedition, and a considerable collection of plants was made by Rich, Pickering, and Brackenridge, chiefly in Luzon. This material was studied by A. Gray,† Brackenridge, and others, and the specimens are preserved in various American and European herbaria, notably the United States National Herbarium, the Gray Herbarium, and the Kew Herbarium. The Wilkes Expedition was in Philippine waters from January 13 to February 12, 1842.

The last of the great exploring expeditions to visit the Philippines was the Challenger Expedition,‡ which was in Philippine waters from October 13 to November 11, 1874 (Zamboanga, Iloilo, Manila), and from January 11 to February 5, 1875 (Manila, Cebu, Camiguin de Misamis, Zamboanga, Malanipa, Malamaui, Basilan, and Santa Cruz). The botanical collections made were few and relatively unimportant.

During this entire period no local residents, other than the Spanish priests Blanco and Llanos, developed any particular interest in botany, and no botanical collections other than small ones made by Callery were prepared and sent to Europe by local residents.

The one great collection of botanical material made in the Philippines during this period was that of Hugh Cuming (1836 to 1840), who came to the Archipelago for the specific purpose of collecting natural-history material, especially shells. He collected in the Provinces of Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Nueva Ecija, Pangasinan, Pampanga, Bulacan, Rizal, Zambales,

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* Meyen, F. J. F., Reise um die Erde ausgefürt auf dem Königlich Preussischen Seehandlungs-Schiffe Prinzess Louise, commandirt von Capitan W. Wendt in den Jahren 1830, 31, und 32 **1** (1834) 1–493; **2** (1835) 1–413; *see also* Meyen, F. J. F., Observationes botanicas in itinere circum terram institutas, Nov. Act. Acad. Leop.-Carol. Nat. Cur. **19** (1843) Suppl. **1**: XXXII+1–512, *t. 1–13.*

† Gray, A., Botany of the United States Exploring Expedition during the years 1838–42 under the command of Captain Wilkes U.S.N. (1854) 1–777, *t. 1–100;* Brackenridge, W. D., Cryptogamia, Filices (1854) VIII+1–357, *t. 1–46; see also* Merrill, E. D., The Philippine plants collected by the Wilkes United States Exploring Expedition, Philip. Journ. Sci. **3** (1908) Bot. 73–84, *t. 1–4.*

‡ Report on the scientific results of the voyage of H. M. S. Challenger during the years 1873–76. Narrative **1** ² (1885) 604–669.

Laguna, Tayabas, Camarines Sur, and Albay, Luzon, and on the Islands of Corregidor, Mindoro, Samar, Leyte, Cebu, Negros, Panay, Bohol, and Mindanao (Misamis Province). Somewhat over 250 numbers were collected by him on his return trip to Europe in Malacca, Singapore, Sumatra, and St. Helena, which were unfortunately distributed with Philippine labels * (see page 77). Cuming prepared an enormous number of duplicate specimens, which on his return to London he disposed of to various private collectors and public institutions. His numbered collections approximated 2,464, of which about 2,200 were from the Philippines. Until near the end of the nineteenth century the greater part of the knowledge of the Philippine flora available to European botanists was based on the Cuming Philippine collections, his specimens being generally available in most of the larger European herbaria. No single collection made in the Philippines up to the end of the nineteenth century can be compared to the Cuming collection in value. This collection was made the subject of a special enumeration by Vidal in 1885,† and on it Turczaninow ‡ largely based an extensive series of special papers. The specimens are generally cited in practically all monographic taxonomic works issued since about 1842.

During the same period smaller and less-important botanical collections were made by Jagor, Lobb, Porte, Barthe, Callery, and others, which found their way into various European herbaria, notably Kew, Paris, and Berlin.

THE PERIOD FROM 1870 TO 1898

In the period from 1870 to the close of the Spanish régime in 1898 there was a distinct renaissance in local botany due largely to the influence, energy, and botanical ability of Sebastian Vidal who came to the Philippines in 1871 as inspector general in the forestry bureau, and who in 1876 was appointed chief of the commission for the forest flora of the Philippines. His first

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* Merrill, E. D., Genera and species erroneously credited to the Philippine flora, Philip. Journ. Sci. **10** (1915) Bot. 171–194. On page 183 is given a list of Cuming's localities by inclusive numbers.

† Vidal, S., Phanerogamae Cumingianae Philippinarum (1885) XV+1-217, *t. 1*.

‡ Turczaninow, N., in Bull. Soc. Nat. Moscow **19** ² (1846) 489–496, 497–510; **20** ² (1847) 148–174; **21** ¹ (1848) 250–262, 570–591; **24** ¹ (1851) 166–214; **25** ¹ (1852) 310–325; **27** ² (1854) 271–372; **31** ¹ (1858) 185–250, 379–476; **36** ² (1863) 193–227, 228–235, 545–615.

extensive publication was his Sinopsis,* the work on which was done largely in Manila, and this was followed by two important volumes, the result of work in various European herbaria in 1883, notably at Kew.† Vidal was the first of the local botanists to recognize the necessity of a local botanical library and herbarium and, further, the absolute necessity of comparing current collections of Philippine material with extant types in various European herbaria. With Vidal's death in 1889 local productive work in botany ceased, and on September 27, 1897, the botanical library and the herbarium established by him were destroyed by an accidental fire in the burning of the forestry bureau building.

Working in collaboration with Vidal at Kew on the latter's Philippine collections, R. A. Rolfe, then an assistant in the Kew Herbarium, prepared and published several papers on the Philippine flora, the most important of which was his general paper on the origin of the Philippine flora.‡

During this period the sumptuous third edition of Blanco's Flora de Filipinas was published by the Augustinian Order in Manila (1877 to 1883). The first three volumes of this are merely a reprint of the second edition of 1845 with a Latin translation, thus following the obsolete Linnaean system of classification. The fourth volume consists of reprints of the various papers published by Llanos, the first publication of Mercado's old manuscript on medicinal plants, and the Novissima Appendix by Fathers C. Fernandez-Villar and A. Naves, which was an attempt to enumerate all the plants known from the Philippines together with reductions of the species described by Blanco and by Llanos. The untrustworthiness of this work is indicated by the fact that of the 4,479 species admitted as Philippine, approximately 1,948, or about 44 per cent, are not known to occur in the Archipelago. As a corollary many of the proposed reductions of species described by Blanco and by Llanos are erroneous. The work has been fully discussed by me elsewhere.§

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* Vidal, S., Sinopsis de familias y géneros de plantas leñosas de Filipinas (1883) XVIII+1-411, *t. 1-100.*

† Vidal, S., Phanerogamae Cumingianae Philippinarum, ó índice numérico y catálogo sistemático de las plantas fanerógamas coleccionadas en Filipinas por Hugh Cuming, con características de algunas especies no descritas y del género Cumingia (Malváceas) (1885) XV+1-217, *t. 1.* Revisión de las plantas vasculares Filipinas (1886) XV+1-454, *t. 2.*

‡ Rolfe, R. A., On the flora of the Philippine Islands and its probable derivation, Journ. Linn. Soc. Bot. **21** (1884) 283-316, *t. 10.*

§ Merrill, E. D., Species Blancoanae (1918) 14-21.

During this period very extensive botanical collections were made in Luzon by Mr. A. Loher, who has resided in the Philippines since 1889. His material is available in various herbaria, notably Kew, Munich, and Washington; there are many duplicates of his later collections in the herbarium of the Bureau of Science. Extensive collections made by Mr. Loher subsequent to 1906 have recently been very generously presented by him to the Bureau of Science. In 1888 Dr. O. Warburg * botanized extensively in various parts of the Archipelago, from northern Luzon to Mindanao. His Philippine collections approximate 3,500 numbers; the original set is in the herbarium of the botanic garden, Berlin, and a fairly representative duplicate set is in the herbarium of the Bureau of Science. Smaller collections were made by Prof. J. B. Steere of the University of Michigan in 1874 and 1875 (ferns only), by F. W. Burbidge in 1877, and by John Whitehead in 1896.

A general summary of the botanical work accomplished on the Philippine flora from the earliest date to the close of the nineteenth century, including the work of the Spanish botanists, that of European and American botanists, the botanical garden, local herbaria, libraries, and the Philippine botanical material in European and American botanical institutions, was published by me in 1903.†

The last few years of the nineteenth century were disastrous for Philippine botany. Naturally during the insurrection against Spain in 1896, followed by the Spanish-American War in 1898 and by the insurrection against the American domination, conditions were entirely unfavorable for productive work, even had there been trained botanists in the local service. As already noted, the herbarium and the botanical library established by Sebastian Vidal in the forestry bureau were entirely destroyed by fire September 27, 1897, in the burning of the forestry bureau building. On February 19, 1899, the much smaller and less important botanical collections assembled by Naves and Fernandez-Villar, the authors of the Novissima Appendix, were also destroyed by fire in the burning of the Guadalupe convent, near Manila, this building having been destroyed by American troops. The botanical collections, a duplicate set

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* Warburg, O., Monsunia. Beiträge zur Kenntniss der Vegetation des Süd und Ostasiatischen Monsungebietes (1900) VIII+1–207, *t. 1–11.*

† Merrill, E. D., Botanical work in the Philippines, Philip. Bur. Agr. Bull. 4 (1903) 1–53, *t. 1.*

of Vidal's plants, the botanical literature in the defunct Muséo Biblioteca, and all other collections of this institution and the small but important botanical library in the botanical garden disappeared during the unsettled state of affairs in 1898. Thus, at the beginning of the American administration the assembled equipment for botanical work in Manila, both literature and specimens, had been destroyed, lost, or rendered inaccessible.

THE PERIOD FROM 1898 TO 1923

With the organization of the Forestry Bureau under the American régime in May, 1900, an attempt was made to rehabilitate the botanical work. Some botanical collections were made by various employees of the bureau, approximating 850 specimens, up to the early part of 1902, and some botanical literature was secured, chiefly from local sources; there was, however, no trained botanist available. In 1902 I was appointed botanist in the Philippine Bureau of Agriculture, and arrived in Manila in April, 1902, with the nucleus of the force selected to organize the Bureau of Agriculture. Work was immediately commenced in an unfurnished room, with neither botanical literature nor botanical specimens. Within a short time the small botanical collections and scanty literature in the Forestry Bureau was made available to me, and in July, 1903, all botanical work was transferred to the Bureau of Government Laboratories, in accord with the general policy adopted of centralizing the scientific work of the Philippine Government in one institution. This bureau became a part of the Bureau of Science in 1906.

Botanical progress has been rather remarkable since 1902. Through collections and exchanges a general herbarium, chiefly of Philippine, Indo-Malaysian, Australian, and Polynesian material, has been built up; it now contains over 250,000 mounted specimens and some representation of practically all species known from the Philippines, and is one of the few large herbaria in Asia and Malaysia. During this time over 400,000 duplicate specimens have been distributed on general exchange account with over eighty institutions and individuals. The library has been developed into a remarkably efficient working unit, its resources scarcely being surpassed by those of any institution in all of Asia and Malaysia. Botanical exploration has been extended into most parts of the Archipelago, as well as into Borneo, the Moluccas, the Marianne Islands, China, and Indo-China. By means of close coöperation an enormous amount of valuable material has been secured through other Government units, notably the Bureau of Forestry, which alone has supplied over 29,000 numbered collections and many duplicates.

Various employees of the Bureau of Science and of the Bureau of Forestry have made extensive botanical collections; for the Bureau of Science, Messrs. Copeland, Elmer, Whitford, Robinson, Foxworthy, Mearns, McGregor, Ramos, and Edaño; and for the Bureau of Forestry, Messrs. Curran, Merritt, Everett, Clark, Darling, Hutchinson, Klemme, Meyer, Barnes, Borden, and numerous Filipino foresters and rangers. The largest single collection made by any one individual is that made by Mr. A. D. E. Elmer, working as a private collector—a collection that has been given wide distribution to botanical institutions all over the world. Mr. R. S. Williams, representing the New York Botanical Garden, made extensive collections in Luzon and in Mindanao from October, 1903, to August, 1905. Private collectors, among them Messrs. Vanoverbergh, Wenzel, C. F. Baker, Loher, Weber, Topping, Lete, and Mrs. Clemens, have supplied abundant material.

The taxonomic work has covered practically all the larger groups of plants, very much having been done locally on the phanerogams and vascular cryptogams, with specialists in certain families in Europe and America handling certain groups. In the cellular cryptogams European and American specialists have identified and described duplicate material supplied by the Bureau of Science. Thus, most of the work on the current collections of mosses has been done by Dr. V. F. Brotherus; on the hepatics by the late Mr. F. Stephani; on the lichens by Dr. E. A. Wainio; on the fungi by Dr. H. Sydow, Dr. W. A. Murrill, Mr. C. G. Lloyd, and the late Dr. P. Hennings; on the algæ by the late Mr. F. S. Collins; and on the ferns and fern allies by Dr. H. Christ, Dr. E. B. Copeland, the late Dr. G. Hieronymus, and Dr. W. Herter. Specialists have handled much or all of our material in certain families of flowering plants; among them, Mr. Oakes Ames in Orchidaceae; the late Dr. O. Beccari in Palmae; Dr. U. Martelli in Pandanaceae; Dr. L. Radlkofer in Sapindaceae; Rev. G. Kükenthal and the late Mr. C. B. Clarke in Cyperaceae, and the latter in Acanthaceae; Dr. E. Hackel in Gramineae; Dr. R. Schlechter in Asclepiadaceae; the late Mr. C. de Candolle in Piperaceae; Dr. A. Engler in Araceae; and Dr. A. Brand in Symplocaceae.

Locally, taxonomic work has been largely done by Dr. C. B. Robinson, Dr. F. W. Foxworthy, Dr. E. B. Copeland, Mr. A. D. E. Elmer, and myself. Plant pathology and the fungi have been the subjects of extensive studies by Mr. P. W. Graff, Mr. O. A. Reinking, Dr. H. S. Yates, Mr. C. F. Baker, and Mr. H. A. Lee; and in the algæ Dr. W. R. Shaw has published a notable series of papers on the Volvocaceae. Drs. F. C. Gates, W. H. Brown, E. B. Copeland, H. N. Whitford, and others have produced valuable papers on physiology and ecology.

Publication of results has kept pace with exploration and taxonomic work. This, to a large extent, has been in the bulletins of the Bureau of Forestry; the publications of the old Bureau of Government Laboratories; the Philippine Journal of Science, official organ of the Bureau of Science; special monographic publications of the Bureau of Science; and in Mr. Elmer's private publication, Leaflets of Philippine Botany. Many papers by foreign authors, based wholly or in part on our material, have been published in Manila and in the scientific periodical literature of Europe and America.

Generally speaking, the history of Philippine botanical endeavor in the period 1902 to 1923 may be summarized by stating that Manila has been made a center of botanical research for the Philippines, and one of the few productive centers of research in Asia and Malaysia, and that the field covered by the various local botanists has extended to most lines of modern botanical research. During this time knowledge of the Philippine flora, which to the end of the last century was very incomplete, has been greatly extended, so that at the present time this rich flora is better known than is that of any other part of the entire Malaysian region, except Java and parts of the Malay Peninsula. This advance has been made possible only by the wise policy of centralization of scientific work adopted by the Philippine Government, coöperation between existing units, and the granting of the necessary financial support by the Government—a support not always fully adequate to meet the situation, but always enough to permit of some progress and expansion.

The list of known Philippine species has been extended from not more than 2,500 described forms in all groups, definitely known from the Archipelago at the close of the last century, to 8,120 species of flowering plants alone, to which must be added approximately 1,000 species of ferns and fern allies and nearly

3,000 species of algae, lichens, mosses, and hepatics. A very high percentage of these additions in all groups has been in the form of previously undescribed species. How much remains to be accomplished before the very rich and varied flora of the Archipelago becomes adequately known is appreciated only by the few botanists who have been closely associated with the work in the Philippines during the past two decades. Some idea of the magnitude of the task awaiting future botanists may be gained from the statement that, of the species included in this enumeration, 1,842 are known only from the single collection on which the original description or Philippine record was based, and 939 additional ones are known from two collections only. Since the first three volumes of this enumeration were published, I have described approximately 100 additional new species of Philippine plants, and current collections (especially those made in previously unexplored or slightly explored regions) constantly yield additions to the large list already known.

GENERAL ECOLOGY OF PHILIPPINE PLANTS AND ANIMALS

A general discussion of the ecological features of the Philippine vegetation is impracticable in this work. The controlling factors are so variable locally that an ecological study of one region, a single island, or a part of an island would of necessity have to be radically modified to cover conditions existing in some neighboring region.

The broad features of the Philippine flora may be summarized by a brief discussion of the dominant types of vegetation. As shown on page 58 large areas of the Philippines are still covered by primary forests, and the point is emphasized (p. 70) that, in interpreting the geographic distribution data with reference to possible previous land connections between the Philippines and neighboring regions, generally speaking, all types of vegetation other than the primary forest should be ignored.

The primary forests are characterized by the presence of numerous species of very large trees, with a canopy so dense that direct sunlight practically never penetrates the interior of the forest. In well-developed primary forests second- and third-story trees occur; at low altitudes the ground covering is usually absent or at least the number of terrestrial herbaceous species in the forests are few and relatively unimportant. Vines and climbing palms are usually abundant and a certain number of epiphytes occur, this being especially true in regions where the dry season is not pronounced. Generally speaking, epiphytes are much more abundant in regions where the rainfall is more or less evenly distributed throughout most parts of the year. The primary forest reaches its greatest development in well-drained valleys and on the lower slopes of the mountains slightly above sea level and, while the primary forests usually extend to the tops of most mountains, the character of the vegetation radically changes at an approximate altitude of 750 meters, although the altitude at which the change takes place varies considerably with the seasonal distribution of the rainfall. At and above an altitude of 750 meters the large trees of the low-altitude primary forest disappear, and the maximum size of the trees at and above this altitude, in general, approximate the height of the second-story trees found in the lower-altitude primary forests; epiphytes become much more abundant, and the terrestrial herbs increase in number, both as to species and as to individuals. As higher altitudes are attained the vegetation is further modified, epiphytic ferns and orchids become relatively more abundant and there is a rich development in the cellular cryptogams; the trunks and the branches of the trees, as well as the ground and exposed bowlders and ledges, are densely covered with a thick growth of mosses, hepatics, and lichens, associated with various epiphytic flowering plants and ferns. Especially on the exposed ridges the trees become more and more stunted and on the higher ridges large trees are entirely absent, the forest being replaced by dense thickets of shrubs and small trees.

Except for the regions in northern Luzon, in small parts of Zambales Peninsula, and a small area near the west coast of Mindoro, which are characterized by the presence of the pine tree, and the areas along the mouths of tidal streams characterized by the dominance of the mangrove trees, gregarious forests do not exist in the Archipelago. In certain types of primary forests, however, especially those characterized by the dominance of the dipterocarps, conditions approaching gregarious forests occur; in such regions a fairly high percentage of all of the trees of large size are representatives of the Dipterocarpaceae, and they dominate the forests either by their abundance or by their large size. Generally speaking, however, the Philippine forests are an exceedingly mixed type. The average low-altitude primary forest in the Philippines is exceedingly complex, and not infrequently a hundred or more species of woody plants may be found on a single hectare. More than 2,500 of the Philippine species would be classed as trees.

In various parts of the Archipelago relatively large areas are occupied by second-growth forests, which in character are rather different from the primary forests, few species being common to the two types. All or practically all of these second-growth forests are due to the activities of man. Wherever the primary forest is destroyed in order to clear the land for agricultural purposes, the area when abandoned is rapidly occupied either by the second-growth forest, or by bamboo (especially gregarious species of *Schizostachyum*), or by coarse grasses, especially the lalang, or cogon (*Imperata*). Under normal conditions the primary forest never reproduces itself direct. If, however, the second-growth forest be left undisturbed for a long period of time it will eventually develop into a type approximating the primary forests by seeding from the neighboring forested areas.

Properly to understand local conditions as to vegetation in the Philippines, the fundamental differences between the floras of the settled and cultivated areas in contrast to those of undisturbed regions supporting a primary vegetation, and the enormous influence man has had on the present condition of the vegetation of the Archipelago, it is necessary to take into consideration the probable nature of the vegetation in the Philippines before the advent of man.

Considering the Philippine Archipelago as a whole, at the present time approximately 33⅓ per cent of the entire land area is covered with virgin forest, 16⅔ per cent by second-growth forest, 40 per cent by open uncultivated grassland, and 10 per cent by cultivated land.*

It is practically certain that before the advent of man in the Philippines most of the country was covered with unbroken forest of one type or another, from sea level to the tops of the highest mountains. Open areas may have existed in the regions now occupied by the pine forests at and above an altitude of 1,000 meters and, of course, certain open areas existed along the margins of streams in swamps, flood plains of rivers, certain types of beaches along the seacoast, and in regions where the arborescent vegetation had been temporarily destroyed by natural causes such as volcanic eruptions. However, such types of vegetation as the enormous areas of grass-covered slopes and plains and the open cultivated areas, now prominent features in the landscape, did not originally exist; so that the general aspect of many localities must have been very different from what it is to-day and from what has been the condition within historic times. Considering the fact that approximately two-thirds of the entire land area of the Archipelago consist of cultivated areas, open grassland, thickets, and second-growth forests, and that all of these types of vegetation are due directly or indirectly to the presence of man, some idea may be obtained of the profound changes that have been wrought in the vegetation of the country in past centuries.

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* Whitford, H. N., Philip. Bur. Forestry Bull. 10 (1911) 12.

In the primary forests practically only those species are found that are adapted to shade conditions. The habitats necessary for light-loving species to become dominant as they are to-day over enormous areas did not originally exist or, if they already existed, they were limited to comparatively small areas. Since the advent of man in the Philippines, some thousands of years ago, the process of introduction of exotic light-loving species purposely and accidentally has been going on and is going on at present. Due to the activities of man in his agricultural pursuits, the proper habitats were provided for the characteristic rice-paddy weeds and other small-seeded weeds of cultivation. Such species when once introduced were thus enabled to persist and to extend their ranges after introduction. Some such plants were undoubtedly introduced accidentally by man in his migrations, but for the most part they were probably introduced through natural means, by wind and especially by the transmission of minute seeds in mud attached to the feet or the feathers of migratory birds.

The first agricultural method employed in the Archipelago whether by the aboriginal Negritos or by the later Malay invaders was certainly the caiñgin system, which is still very extensively practiced in the Archipelago. This primitive system of agriculture consists simply in clearing a selected area by felling the trees, burning the débris, and raising some crop on the area thus cleared. Such a clearing, in general practice, is utilized but one or two years, rarely longer; it is abandoned as soon as coarse grasses, weeds, shrubs, etc., commence to gain ascendency over the cultivated plants. With only the most primitive agricultural instruments, the agriculturist devoting himself to the caiñgin system to-day, as in past centuries, finds himself unable to cope with the luxuriant vegetation. In keeping a cleared area open for agricultural purposes he finds it much easier to fell and burn the trees on a new area than to combat the encroachment of weeds, coarse grasses such as cogon (*Imperata*) with deep-seated perennial rhizomes, and the bamboos of the genus *Schizostachyum.* Certain advantages are gained in clearing new areas, especially that of securing a virgin soil, but this feature is in many cases doubtless a secondary consideration. A clearing once abandoned may, depending on local conditions, revert to a forested condition through a succession of coarse annual weeds, shrubs, and various quick-growing trees, a second-growth forest soon occupying the clearing; or it may become covered with coarse grasses, especially cogon, or sometimes other species in such genera as *Saccharum, Rottboellia*, and *Themeda;* or it may become occupied by gregarious bamboo forests, the species in this case being representatives of the genus *Schizostachyum.*

If the abandoned clearing become reforested, it is only a question of time when it will again be cleared for cultivation by the caiñgin system. Very frequently, however, the clearing becomes covered with coarse grasses, and when this occurs the chances are that the area will not become reforested. Each year grass fires are purposely started, either to improve agricultural conditions or to make the country more easily traversed. Thus, most of the grass-covered areas in the Philippines are burned each dry season, and grass fires of enormous extent are prevalent throughout the Archipelago when conditions are favorable. These fires prevent the reproduction of forest by killing young trees and seedlings which may have become established among the coarse grasses; in fact, all plants other than the coarse grasses and those provided with deep-seated perennial rhizomes are thus annually destroyed. As the grass-covered areas become more extended, the fires often gradually push back the edges of the forest by the destruction of the young and mature trees along the borders of clearings. As the ultimate result, in many hilly areas in the Philippines, the continuous slopes are covered with grasses, and the forest persists only in the ravines where the land is generally not suitable for cultivation.

Forest fires as such are practically unknown in the Philippines, except in certain limited areas, especially those characterized by the presence of the pine tree. The average high humidity, the rapid decay of fallen leaves and branches or their destruction by termites, and the nature of the undergrowth militate against forest fires. To assume that forest fires caused ravages in the Philippines in previous times it would be necessary to postulate radically different climatic conditions, and any great difference in this respect, especially lower humidity, is exceedingly unlikely. Forest fires as a factor in the establishment of open grass-covered areas can hence be ignored.

We find in the Philippines representatives of approximately 1,524 genera of plants, of which about 216 have manifestly been introduced by man, either purposely or accidentally, leaving about 1,308 that may be considered as indigenous. Of these but 35 are endemic, which, considering the position of the Archipelago, represents a rather remarkably low percentage of generic endemism. In contrast Borneo alone, with but about 1,152 genera, presents 47 that are known only from that island.*

In contrast to the low percentage of generic endemism, there is a remarkably high specific endemism. There are approximately 8,120 species of flowering plants recorded from the Archipelago. Deducting from this number the cultivated species, which with but very few exceptions have been introduced by man, and the manifestly introduced weeds, totaling about 500, we may consider the known indigenous flora to present approximately 7,620 species. Of these no less than 5,832, or about 76.5 per cent, are known only from the Philippines. We may conclude then that the Archipelago as a whole has been separated geologically from neighboring islands for a sufficiently long period to allow for the development of a remarkably high percentage in specific endemism, but not long enough to allow for the development of many distinctive genera.

Endemism may be studied from various angles. In connection with my general thesis that the primary forests of the Archipelago of to-day represent the vegetation of the group as it existed before the advent of man in the Islands, and that, generally speaking, other types of vegetation should be ignored in discussing phytogeographic relationships, the following table is instructive. In the smaller genera of the families enumerated in this table and of other sylvan families the high percentage of endemism is equally striking.

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* Merrill, E. D., Bibliographic enumeration of Bornean plants, Journ Str. Branch Roy. As. Soc., Special Number (1921) 18.

Large Philippine plant genera with high endemism.

Family and genus.	Total species.	Non-endemic species.
Pandanaceae:		
Freycinetia	44	0
Pandanus	46	3
Palmae:		
Calamus	36	3
Pinanga	20	0
Zingiberaceae:		
Languas	30	4
Amomum	24	0
Orchidaceae:		
Habenaria	28	4
Acoridium	54	0
Dendrochilum	27	0
Malaxis	35	2
Oberonia	24	3
Liparis	34	7
Appendicula	23	5
Dendrobium	75	10
Eria	69	7
Bulbophyllum	109	6
Piperaceae:		
Piper	112	20
Moraceae:		
Ficus	147	31
Urticaceae:		
Elatostema	73	2
Loranthaceae:		
Loranthus	77	5
Anonaceae:		
Polyalthia	22	4
Lauraceae:		
Litsea	32	3
Cryptocarya	32	1
Rutaceae:		
Evodia	23	0
Burseraceae:		
Canarium	46	1
Meliaceae:		
Dysoxylum	31	2
Aglaia	57	6
Euphorbiaceae:		
Phyllanthus	34	8
Glochidion	43	7
Antidesma	30	3
Cleistanthus	21	2
Aquifoliaceae:		
Ilex	21	5
Sapindaceae:		
Allophylus	26	5
Guioa	20	4
Balsaminaceae:		
Impatiens	25	1
Vitaceae:		
Leea	25	6
Elaeocarpaceae:		
Elaeocarpus	45	2
Sterculiaceae:		
Sterculia	20	4
Dilleniaceae:		
Saurauia	47	0
Guttiferae:		
Calophyllum	21	3
Garcinia	29	6
Begoniaceae:		
Begonia	81	1
Myrtaceae:		
Eugenia	181	12
Melastomataceae:		
Medinilla	122	5
Astronia	32	0
Memecylon	37	5
Araliaceae:		
Boerlagiodendron	22	0
Schefflera	54	1
Ericaceae:		
Vaccinium	35	2
Myrsinaceae:		
Ardisia	68	8
Discocalyx	30	1
Sapotaceae:		
Palaquium	27	1
Ebenaceae:		
Diospyros	33	4
Symplocaceae:		
Symplocos	41	4
Verbenaceae:		
Callicarpa	34	6
Clerodendron	25	10
Gesneriaceae:		
Trichosporum	33	0
Cyrtandra	82	1
Asclepiadaceae:		
Hoya	20	1
Rubiaceae:		
Hedyotis	46	8
Neonauclea	21	1
Urophyllum	20	1
Timonius	24	0
Ixora	43	7
Psychotria	100	2

The above table consists very largely of the genera characteristic of and confined to the primary forests. It will be noted that in practically every case the percentage of endemism is high, in some cases 100 per cent, and in nearly all cases higher than the general percentage of endemism of the flora as a whole. In a few cases, in such genera as *Piper*, *Ficus*, and *Clerodendron*, the number of nonendemic species is relatively high; but in these genera a considerable number of the species are found not in the primary forests, but in thickets, second-growth forests, and open places. The tabulation merely presents in another manner the fact that the vegetation of the primary forests is the true original vegetation of the Archipelago, the flora of the forested regions not having been appreciably affected by the introduced element dominant in the settled areas and in the second-growth forests. For all practical purposes, I believe we may safely assume that the present-day vegetation of the primary forests of the Philippines is practically identical, in both genera and species, with the Pliocene and Pleistocene floras of the region. Certainly, the Pliocene and Pleistocene fossil plant remains that are known from the Archipelago cannot be distinguished with safety or with certainty from species now living in the group.

In contrast to this, numerous other families are characterized by a low percentage of endemism, such as the following:

Hydrocharitaceae.
Gramineae.
Cyperaceae.
Commelinaceae.
Liliaceae.
Ulmaceae.
Amaranthaceae.
Nyctaginaceae.
Aizoaceae.
Portulacaceae.
Rosaceae.
Leguminosae.
Rutaceae.
Vitaceae.
Tiliaceae.
Malvaceae.
Sterculiaceae.
Rhizophoraceae.
Umbelliferae.
Apocynaceae.
Convolvulaceae.
Boraginaceae.
Labiatae.
Scrophulariaceae.
Acanthaceae.
Cucurbitaceae.
Compositae.

These families are essentially characteristic of the open country and second-growth forests. It should be noted that most of the Philippine weeds belong in these families and are manifestly introduced plants in the Archipelago. The members of some groups, such as the Compositae, have very efficient adaptations for dissemination.

Certain families are represented in the Philippines only by introduced species, most of which are more or less naturalized. These families are the following:

- Bromeliaceae.
- Cannaceae.
- Chenopodiaceae.
- Phytolaccaceae.
- Aizoaceae (probably).
- Basellaceae.
- Papaveraceae.
- Cruciferae (mostly).
- Moringaceae.
- Oxalidaceae (mostly).
- Zygophyllaceae.
- Bixaceae.
- Caricaceae.
- Cactaceae.
- Punicaceae.
- Umbelliferae (mostly).
- Pedaliaceae.
- Plantaginaceae.

An attempt has been made in the following tabulation and brief discussion to give some idea of how extensively the Philippines has been invaded by alien plants. Most of the genera in the table have been introduced into the Archipelago since its discovery by the Spaniards in 1521, and this list alone supplies a striking commentary on the influence that man exerts on the vegetation of regions in which he operates.

Genera represented in the Philippine flora by introduced species only.

- Gramineae:
  - *Avena.*
  - *Cenchrus.*
  - *Coix.*
  - *Dactyloctenium.*
  - *Eleusine.*
  - *Festuca.*
  - *Polytrias.*
  - *Phalaris.*
  - *Triticum.*
  - *Zea.*
- Palmae:
  - *Actinorhytis.*
  - *Cocos.*
  - *Coelococcus.*
  - *Elaeis.*
- Araceae:
  - *Caladium.*
  - *Colocasia.*
  - *Cyrtosperma.*
  - *Typhonium.*
- Bromeliaceae:
  - *Ananas.*
- Commelinaceae:
  - *Rhoeo.*
  - *Zebrina.*
- Pontederiaceae:
  - *Eichornia.*
- Liliaceae:
  - *Allium.*
  - *Aloe.*
  - *Cordyline.*
  - *Taetsia.*
  - *Yucca.*
- Amaryllidaceae:
  - *Agave.*
  - *Atamosco.*
  - *Eucharis.*
  - *Eurycles.*
  - *Hippeastrum.*
  - *Hymenocallis.*
  - *Pancratium.*
  - *Polianthes.*
- Iridaceae:
  - *Belamcanda.*
  - *Eleutherine.*
- Musaceae:
  - *Heliconia.*
  - *Ravenala.*
- Zingiberaceae:
  - *Curcuma.*
  - *Phaeomeria.*

Cannaceae:
    Canna.
Marantaceae:
    Maranta.
Fagaceae:
    Castanea.
Moraceae:
    Morus.
Polygonaceae:
    Corculum.
    Muehlenbeckia.
    Rumex.
Chenopodiaceae:
    Chenopodium.
Amaranthaceae:
    Achyranthes.
    Alternanthera.
    Amaranthus.
    Celosia.
    Gomphrena.
    Iresine.
Nyctaginaceae:
    Boerhaavia.
    Bougainvillaea.
    Mirabilis.
Phytolaccaceae:
    Rivinia.
Aizoaceae:
    Trianthema.
Basellaceae:
    Basella.
    Anredera.
Caryophyllaceae:
    Cerastium.
    Drymaria.
    Spergula.
Magnoliaceae:
    Magnolia.
Anonaceae:
    Anona.
Papaveraceae:
    Argemone.
Cruciferae:
    Brassica.
    Lepidium.
    Nasturtium.
Capparidaceae:
    Cleome.
    Gynandropsis.
    Polanisia.

Moringaceae:
    Moringa.
Crassulaceae:
    Bryophyllum.
Leguminosae:
    Aberus.
    Arachis.
    Delonix.
    Cajanus.
    Centrosema.
    Clitoria.
    Inocarpus.
    Leucaena.
    Medicago.
    Melilotus.
    Mimosa.
    Pachyrrhizus.
    Parosela.
    Pisum.
    Prosopis.
    Psophocarpus.
    Samanea.
    Schrankia.
    Tamarindus.
    Zornia.
Geraniaceae:
    Erodium.
Oxalidaceae:
    Averrhoa.
    Biophytum.
    Oxalis.
Zygophyllaceae:
    Tribulus.
Simarubaceae:
    Quassia.
Malpighiaceae:
    Thryallis.
Euphorbiaceae:
    Cicca.
    Hevea.
    Jatropha.
    Manihot.
    Ricinus.
Anacardiaceae:
    Anacardium.
Sapindaceae:
    Cardiospermum.
Tiliaceae:
    Muntingia.

Malvaceae:
- *Abutilon.*
- *Malachra.*
- *Malvastrum.*
- *Malvaviscus.*
- *Urena.*

Bombacaceae:
- *Ceiba.*
- *Durio.*

Sterculiaceae:
- *Abroma.*
- *Pentapetes.*
- *Theobroma.*
- *Waltheria.*

Bixaceae:
- *Bixa.*

Caricaceae:
- *Carica.*

Cactaceae:
- *Acanthocereus.*
- *Cereus.*
- *Hylocereus.*
- *Nopalea.*
- *Opuntia.*

Lythraceae:
- *Ammannia?*
- *Lawsonia.*
- *Rotala?*

Punicaceae:
- *Punica.*

Myrtaceae:
- *Psidium.*

Oenotheraceae:
- *Jussiaea?*
- *Ludwigia.*

Araliaceae:
- *Nothopanax.*

Umbelliferae:
- *Carum.*
- *Centella.*
- *Foeniculum.*

Plumbaginaceae:
- *Plumbago.*

Sapotaceae:
- *Achras.*
- *Calocarpum.*

Gentianaceae:
- *Erythraea.*

Apocynaceae:
- *Allamanda.*
- *Lochnera.*

Apocynaceae—Continued.
- *Nerium.*
- *Plumiera.*
- *Thevetia.*

Asclepiadaceae:
- *Asclepias.*
- *Calotropis.*
- *Cryptostegia.*

Convolvulaceae:
- *Quamoclit.*

Boraginaceae:
- *Trichodesma.*

Verbenaceae:
- *Duranta.*
- *Lantana.*
- *Lippia.*
- *Petraea.*
- *Stachytarpheta.*
- *Verbena.*

Labiatae:
- *Anisomeles.*
- *Hyptis.*
- *Leonurus.*
- *Ocimum.*
- *Mentha.*
- *Rosmarinus.*

Solanaceae:
- *Brunfelsia.*
- *Cestrum.*
- *Datura.*
- *Lycopersicum.*
- *Nicotiana.*
- *Physalis.*

Scrophulariaceae:
- *Russelia.*
- *Scoparia.*

Bignoniaceae:
- *Crescentia.*
- *Jacaranda.*
- *Spathodea.*
- *Stenolobium.*

Pedaliaceae:
- *Sesamum.*

Acanthaceae:
- *Asystasia.*
- *Barleria.*
- *Blechum.*
- *Elytraria.*
- *Graptophyllum.*
- *Rhinacanthus.*

Plantaginaceae:
- *Plantago.*

Rubiaceae:
- *Coffea.*

Cucurbitaceae:
- *Benincasa.*
- *Citrullus.*
- *Cucumis.*
- *Cucurbita.*
- *Lagenaria.*

Campanulaceae:
- *Isotoma.*

Compositae:
- *Adenostemma.*
- *Ageratum.*
- *Carthamus.*
- *Centipeda.*
- *Chrysanthemum.*
- *Cosmos.*

Compositae—Continued.
- *Crepis.*
- *Crossostephium.*
- *Elephantopus.*
- *Erechtites.*
- *Erigeron.*
- *Grangea.*
- *Helianthus.*
- *Melampodium.*
- *Mikania.*
- *Pterocaulon.*
- *Siegesbeckia.*
- *Sonchus.*
- *Sphaeranthus.*
- *Synedrella.*
- *Tagetes.*
- *Taraxacum.*
- *Tithonia.*

In this tabulation 216 genera are listed that are represented in the Philippine flora by introduced species only. The list does not give a comprehensive idea of the extent of the introduced element, for a very high percentage of all the species in numerous other genera are also introduced, so far as their occurrence in the Philippines is concerned. Among the genera represented in the Philippines, a high percentage of the species of which are introduced ones, the following may be mentioned:

Andropogon.
Ischaemum.
Manichuris.
Digitaria.
Panicum.
Paspalum.
Oplismenus.
Setaria.
Sporobolus.
Chloris.
Eragrostis.
Lipocarpha.
Cyperus.
Pycreus.
Mariscus.
Scirpus.
Eleocharis.
Fimbristylis.
Eriocaulon.
Commelina.
Aneilema.
Cyanotis.
Dioscorea.
Polygonum.
Mollugo.
Cassia.
Crotalaria.
Indigofera.
Desmodium.
Phaseolus.
Vigna.
Citrus.
Mangifera.
Sida.
Hibiscus.
Gossypium.
Heliotropium.
Merremia.
Ipomoea.
Operculina.
Calonyction.
Leucas.
Solanum.
Limnophila.

Torenia.
Lindernia.
Ilysanthes.
Oldenlandia.
Borreria.
Luffa.
Conyza.
Blumea.
Eclipta.
Bidens.

Representatives of these genera are almost never found in the forested regions—never in the primary forests—but they, like all of the species in the list of introduced genera above, are characteristic of the cultivated areas, the open settled regions, the thickets, and to a certain degree the second-growth forests. Many of the genera listed present no endemic species. It is entirely safe to assume that most of the species in these genera have been introduced into the Philippines since the arrival of man in the Archipelago, some by man himself, others through natural agencies, after man had prepared the habitat to which these open-country species are adapted, by the destruction of the primary forests over considerable areas through his crude agricultural methods. The total number of introduced species in the Philippine flora, admitted in the present list, is about 500. However, this number does not include numerous characteristic and widely distributed grasses and sedges, equally numerous shrubs, trees, vines, etc., that are dominant in the thickets and in the second-growth forests that, in all probability, are not true natives of the Archipelago but, like the numerous pantropic weeds that are definitely known to be of American origin, have originated elsewhere and have by one means or another extended their ranges to the Philippines. Specific endemism is very low in the Philippines, except in the primary forest, where it approximates 84 per cent; in the second-growth forests, open grasslands, and settled areas generally, endemism does not exceed 10 per cent.

In grass-covered areas protected against fire it is only a question of time when forest conditions will again prevail and the original vegetation of the country will claim its own. Therefore, it is due to the presence of man that the open grasslands exist here and to his continued presence that this type of vegetation persists and continues to extend itself at the expense of the forested areas. Man is directly responsible for nearly all of the annually recurring grass fires in all parts of the Archipelago, very few being started through natural causes. Could the grass fires be prevented or properly controlled, the grasslands would in due time become reforested through natural means.

Assuming that the original vegetation of the Philippines was practically an unbroken forest, it becomes manifest that a high percentage of the species now dominant in the open areas must have been introduced into the Archipelago after the advent of man and after sufficient time had elapsed for man to have provided the habitats to which these species are adapted. The great bulk of the species found in the settled areas and in the open grassland and secondary forests are those which absolutely cannot persist under primary-forest conditions. They are for the most part species of very wide geographic distribution that certainly have not originated in the Archipelago, but which must have developed their characteristics as to habitat in nonforested regions or in thinly forested countries.

On the assumption that the great majority of species now found at low altitudes in the settled areas of the Philippines have reached the Archipelago since the advent of man, it is manifest that should any large area become depopulated for a long term of years, the vegetation thus becoming automatically protected against fires and other disturbing factors due to the presence of man, sooner or later the original vegetation of the Archipelago—that is, that of the primary forest—would again occupy the entire area. The absolute or nearly absolute extermination of the introduced forms, which depend for their existence on an open habitat and cannot live in forested regions, would follow. This would mean that the great majority of the species now found in the settled areas would either become extinct or of very local occurrence in the limited areas where conditions for their growth and reproduction might persist.

In connection with this general problem, a consideration of specific endemism is significant. Of the 8,120 species now known from the Archipelago, no less than 5,532 are known only from the Philippines, the endemism (68 per cent) being remarkably high. If we eliminate approximately 500 species which are manifestly introduced forms in the Philippines, then the endemism is about 76.5 per cent. If we consider only the species that occur in the primary forests, however, which total about 6,159, endemism approximates 84 per cent. A study of endemism in reference to the species found in the cultivated areas or open grasslands and the secondary forests shows that these regions present an endemism of less than 10 per cent. The percentage of endemism for the country as a whole and for the primary forests as compared with the secondary forests and open regions corroborates the general theory considered here; namely, that the original vegetation of the Philippines was a primary-forest type and that a high percentage of the species now dominant and characteristic of the open areas and the second-growth forests have been introduced into the Archipelago from surrounding regions in comparatively recent times. In considering the question of phytogeographic relationships of such regions as the Philippines we must, to be entirely safe, confine ourselves largely to a consideration of those elements that comprise the vegetation of the primary forests, and must to a high degree ignore those species characteristic of the settled areas, open grasslands, and second-growth forests. In the first case we are dealing with the original vegetation of the Islands, and in the second largely with species introduced by one means or another since the advent of man in the Archipelago.

The introduced element in a flora is not frequently treated as such, although the subject is in many respects a fascinating one. In connection with the preparation of my Flora of Manila, data were assembled in reference to this problem.* Before the advent of Europeans and the consequent increased communication between the Philippines and neighboring countries a large number of species must have been introduced into the Archipelago by man in his migration and in the intercommunication between the Philippines, Malaysia, southern China, Siam, Indo-China, and perhaps even India. With the advent of Europeans a great impetus was given to the dissemination of plants, and the flora of the Philippines, like that of many other regions, has been greatly enriched by species introduced within historic times. Thus, since the discovery of the Archipelago by the Spaniards in 1521 many tropical American plants have been introduced, some for economic reasons, others as accidentally introduced weeds. Approximately one-half of the one thousand species occurring in the vicinity of Manila are not true natives of the Archipelago, but have been introduced purposely or accidentally by man. Nearly two hundred species are manifestly of American origin and have been introduced into the Philippines since the Archipelago was discovered, and mostly between 1521 and 1815, the latter date being the year when the galleon service between Acapulco, Mexico, and Manila was discontinued. If in this comparatively short period so many species were introduced from tropical America, is it not reasonable to suppose that in the many centuries occupied in the peopling of the Archipelago many more species were thus introduced from neighboring regions of the Old World?

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* Merrill E. D., Notes on the flora of Manila with special reference to the introduced element, Philip. Journ. Sci. 7 (1912) Bot. 145–208.

How extensive plant introduction has been in the Philippines is indicated by the fact that practically every species now cultivated in the Philippines for food or for commercial purposes, except abacá, *Musa textilis* Née, has been introduced. With these purposely introduced plants there must of necessity have been a large number of inadvertently introduced weeds. Indeed, it is surprising to note the rapidity with which a weed spreads when once introduced where climatic conditions are favorable to its growth and development. Many of the dominant weeds, which are found in the Philippines practically wherever the soil is more or less disturbed by man, are plants of American origin. For tropical American weeds and economic plants the Philippines served during the early Spanish colonial period as a center of dispersal to the Oriental Tropics.

BIOLOGIC SUBDIVISIONS OF THE PHILIPPINE ARCHIPELAGO

There are, of course, striking differences in floras of different parts of the Archipelago, but generally speaking, with the exception of a few areas, botanical subregions within the Archipelago are not sharply defined. The types of vegetation of the Archipelago are, on the whole, more strongly delimited by the seasonal distribution of the rainfall, and the resulting continuous high humidity, or alternating dry and wet seasons, and by altitude, than by previously existing geographic conditions within the group. In relation to the seasonal distribution of the rainfall, we find a very striking tendency for numerous species to follow the general line of distribution from Mindanao northward through Leyte and Samar and Sorsogon, Albay, and Camarines Provinces, in Luzon, and through the eastern parts of Tayabas Province of the same island even to the Pacific coast range of Cagayan and Isabela, in northern Luzon; the regions just mentioned are those characterized by no pronounced dry season, the rainfall being more or less uniform throughout all months of the year, in striking contrast to the western parts of the Archipelago where the alternating wet and dry seasons are sharply defined.

Local endemism is highly developed in the Archipelago, and every large island presents many species that have not been found elsewhere. Moreover, endemism may be strictly localized within certain parts of a given island. However, in most large genera that present a high percentage of endemic species we usually find a few widely distributed species occurring in most islands of the Archipelago; many of these widely distributed species are confined to the Philippines, thus indicating the essential uniformity of the Archipelago; others are of wide distribution in the Tropics of the Old World or in the Indo-Malaysian region. This applies to both low- and high-altitude forms.

From the position of the Batan and Babuyan Islands between Luzon and Formosa we naturally find in these groups certain Formosan species which do not extend southward to the mainland of Luzon. So far as our present knowledge of the floras of these two groups is concerned, the Babuyan Islands are botanically much more closely allied to Luzon than are the Batan Islands. Balabac, Cagayan Sulu, Palawan, Busuanga, Culion, and Cuyo present a series of Bornean types that do not extend into the Archipelago proper, although a few of these western Malaysian types reach Mindoro and western Panay. Likewise, to the south, the Sulu Archipelago presents certain Bornean elements that are absent from the main part of the Archipegalo, some of which extend into Zamboanga Peninsula. These Bornean elements probably represent the later migration into the parts of the Philippines indicated, further migrations into the Archipelago proper having been inhibited by sea channels.

The one sharply defined botanical subregion in the Philippines is the area approximately delimited by the political subdivision known as Mountain Province in northern Luzon, a region characterized by high mountains and by the dominance of the Benguet pine, *Pinus insularis* Endl. This region presents many Asiatic types that do not occur elsewhere in the Philippines and the most southeastern extension of range of a fairly large number of Himalayan types; and, as noted later (p. 89), nearly all of the Himalayan types that occur in the mountains of northern Luzon are found also in Formosa. Doubtless they reached northern Luzon and Formosa at approximately the same time and through the same channels. It has already been indicated (p. 18) that in the early Tertiary there were apparently land connections between northern Luzon and Formosa and Formosa itself was formerly a part of the Asiatic continent.

In Zambales Province, Luzon, some rather characteristic species have been found which are not known to occur elsewhere. The physical and geological features of this part of Luzon, especially the great central plain extending northward from Manila Bay to Lingayen Gulf east of the Zambales Range, clearly indicate that Zambales was formerly an island separated from Luzon. Mindoro has a flora similar, in general, to that of the neighboring islands Luzon and Panay; but, like most other individual islands in the Philippines, it also presents many endemic species and a certain admixture of forms that are otherwise known within the Philippines only in the Calamian-Palawan group and outside of the Philippines in Borneo, Sumatra, and the Malay Peninsula. Samar and Leyte present much in common in respect to their floras, but the rest of the Visayan Islands (Panay, Negros, Cebu, Bohol, and Masbate) seem to present a fairly uniform flora with local endemism in each island. Botanical exploration has been at most superficial in these islands, and hence the data are not available on which to base any conclusions as to their previous conditions of insularity or their connections with each other or with other islands. In many respects their floras resemble those of the western parts of Luzon.

In Mindanao, as a whole, various genera and species are found that have not been collected farther north, but also occur in Celebes, in the Moluccas, and in other islands south and southeast of the Philippines. Here again, as with the Visayan Islands, too little botanical information is available even to attempt the delimitation of floristic subdivisions.

In various groups of animals, however, sufficient data are available on which to establish more or less sharply defined biologic subprovinces. Thus, McGregor,* on the basis of the distribution of Philippine birds, recognizes eleven zoögeographic subprovinces (see Plate 5), as follows: The Batan and Babuyan Islands; Luzon, including Polillo, Catanduanes, and Marinduque; Mindoro, with some neighboring small islands; Tablas, Romblon, and Sibuyan; Ticao, Masbate, Panay, Negros, and Siquijor; Samar, Leyte, and Bohol; Cebu; Mindanao, Camiguin, Dinagat, Siargao, and Sarangani; Basilan; the Sulu Archipelago; and Balabac, Palawan, and the Calamian and Cuyo Islands. These subprovinces delimited by the generic and specific distribution of Philippine birds are curiously consistent with the geologic history of the Archipelago in relation to former land connections within the group, the 200-meter submarine contour line, and the various deeps within the Philippines.

Thus, the Balabac-Palawan-Calamian-Cuyo subprovince presents striking Bornean elements not found in other parts of the Archipelago, and all these islands lie on the Bornean continental shelf; Luzon is a fairly consistent unit; Mindanao has long been separated from both Palawan and Luzon; Samar, Leyte, and Bohol were at no great distance in the past (geologically speaking) one island; and this is true also of Ticao, Masbate, Panay, Negros, and Siquijor. Cebu has had a geologic history strikingly different from both Negros to the west and the Leyte-Samar-Bohol group to the east, and is made up of what was formerly a series of distinct small or relatively small islands.

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* McGregor, R. C., Some features of the Philippine ornis, with notes on the vegetation in relation to the avifauna, Philip. Journ. Sci. **16** (1920) 361–437, *t. 1–35.*

The avifauna furnishes the most extensive definite data upon which to base zoölogic subprovinces within the Archipelago. In other groups of animals, the data available conform rather remarkably to the bird distribution, notably in reference to the Balabac-Palawan-Calamian-Cuyo subprovince. Among reptiles, batrachians, mammals, fresh-water fishes, insects, terrestrial and fresh-water mollusks, and plants all biologic evidence conforms with the geologic and hydrographic evidence that in Pleistocene times these islands were connected with what is now Borneo, and were not connected with the Philippine Archipelago proper. This is clearly the most strongly delimited biologic subprovince in the Philippines (Plate 5).

Hidalgo,* on the basis of the known geographic distribution of the species of *Cochlostyla,* a remarkably developed group of terrestrial snails, with over two hundred known Philippine species, divided the Archipelago into five regions or centers, as follows: I, Luzon (including the Batan and Babuyan Islands, as well as Polillo and Catanduanes, thus approximately conforming with McGregor's large avian subprovince of Luzon); II, Mindoro, with Marinduque, Burias, Tablas, Romblon, and Sibuyan; III, Negros, including Ticao, Masbate, Panay, Cebu, Bohol, Leyte, and Samar; IV, Mindanao, including Dinagat, Siargao, Camiguin, and Sarangani, corresponding exactly to McGregor's avian subprovince of Mindanao; and V, Palawan, including the Cuyo and Calamian Islands and Balabac, also conforming exactly with McGregor's avian subprovince of Balabac-Palawan-Calamian-Cuyo.

The true fresh-water fishes, the cyprinoids, define the Balabac-Palawan-Calamian-Cuyo group as sharply as do other organisms. A single species occurs in Mindoro; several species occur in Mindanao. The group is entirely absent from Luzon and the Visayan Islands. So far as these fishes occur in the Philippines, their distribution is in almost exact accord with two of the avian subprovinces, Mindanao and the Palawan-Balabac-Calamian-Cuyo group.

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* Hidalgo, J. G., Obras malacológicas (1890) 578–584.

Semper,* on the geographic distribution of the butterflies, divided the Archipelago into six districts, as follows: I, Luzon, including Marinduque, Burias, Catanduanes, Polillo, and the Batan and Babuyan Islands; II, Mindoro; III, Palawan, Balabac, Calamian, and Cuyo Islands; IV, Panay, Guimaras, Negros, Cebu, and doubtfully Masbate and Ticao; V, Samar, Leyte, Bohol, and certain neighboring small islands; and VI, Mindanao, including Camiguin, Dinagat, Siargao, Sarangani, Basilan, and the Sulu Archipelago.

It is of interest to compare Semper's districts with the divisions proposed by McGregor and by Hidalgo. All biologists are a unit in distinguishing the Balabac-Palawan-Calamian-Cuyo subregion, and the fauna as to reptiles, batrachians, and mammals is just as distinctly Bornean in its major alliances as is the case with the birds, fresh-water fishes, and insects. The region is merely politically a part of the Philippines; biologically it is distinct, this correlating absolutely with its geologic history.

SPECIES OF PLANTS ERRONEOUSLY CREDITED TO THE PHILIPPINES

The study of the Philippine flora has been peculiarly complicated by species of plants having been erroneously recorded as Philippine, and it is very doubful if any similar area in the world has had erroneously credited to it so many species. This subject has been given detailed consideration by me elsewhere.†

The pioneer work done locally by Blanco and by Llanos was accomplished with utterly inadequate literature, no herbarium material, and no association with European botanists and botanical institutions, and hence it is not surprising that these authors made many grave errors in their identifications.

Blanco described about 450 species under names proposed by other authors, but in the interpretation of such species he was correct in only about 150 cases, his errors in interpretation approximating 66 per cent. In this respect Llanos's work is distinctly poorer than Blanco's, as in approximately 75 per cent of the species identified by him with forms described by other authors he was in error.

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* Semper, G., Die Schmetterlinge der Philippinischen Inseln. Beitrag zur Indo-Malayischen Lepidopteren-Fauna 1 (1892) 361–366; in C. Semper, Reisen im Archipel der Philippinen, zweiter Theil, Wissenschaftliche Resultäte, fünfter Band.

† Merrill, E. D., Genera and species erroneously credited to the Philippine flora, Philip. Journ. Sci. 10 (1915) Bot. 171–194.

The most striking example of this phase of Philippine botany is that presented by the work of Fernandez-Villar and Naves in the third edition of Blanco's Flora de Filipinas, more especially in the Novissima Appendix to that work. The errors of Blanco, working between 1805 and 1845, and of Llanos, working between 1850 and 1875, sink into insignificance when compared with the work of the editors of the third edition of Blanco's Flora de Filipinas, 1875 to 1883. In the Novissima Appendix, 4,479 species were admitted as Philippine, distributed into 1,223 genera and 155 families. Of these at least one family and about 116 genera have no known representatives in the Archipelago, and about 1,948 species listed as Philippine are not known to occur in the Archipelago. These four authors then have burdened Philippine botanical literature with the names of approximately 2,413 species originally described from extra-Philippine material, but which never have been found in the Archipelago. They were admitted through misconception of species and misinterpretation of descriptions, and there is no reason to believe that any considerable number of them will ever be found here. In my Enumeration, if species actually described by these authors can be identified, they are cited in the synonymy; and species admitted by Llanos, Fernandez-Villar, and Naves without descriptions, but accompanied by citation of synonyms based on Philippine descriptions, are also enumerated in the synonymy. Otherwise, species simply enumerated but not described are listed, following the various genera, under "doubtful and excluded species." There is no way by which their identity can be determined.

In my paper on the species erroneously credited to the Philippine flora, mentioned above, about seventy-five species are enumerated and discussed that were based on specimens assumed to be of Philippine origin, but which in reality were not collected in the Archipelago. Most such references are based on material collected by Cuming in the Malay Peninsula and Sumatra and distributed with Philippine labels; on erroneously labeled material collected by Née and Haenke, botanists of the Malaspina Expedition; and on collections made by Thomas Lobb, many of which are indicated as having been collected in Luzon, but in reality were collected in the Malay Peninsula, Borneo, or Java. The labels of Lobb's specimens seem to have been purposely falsified as to the localities in which they were collected. In the large numbered collection distributed by Hugh Cuming, most of the specimens from 1 to 2153 were collected in the Philippines, and all of the numbers between 2154 and 2466 were collected outside of the Philippines, in Malacca, Singapore, Sumatra, and St. Helena; they were, unfortunately, all distributed with printed Philippine labels. Fortunately, Cuming prepared for Sir William Hooker a list of numbers and localities, which is preserved in Hooker's correspondence at Kew and has been reproduced by me.*

SPECIES OF PLANTS EXCLUDED FROM THE ENUMERATION

In the Enumeration, under various groups, genera and species have been listed as "excluded" or as "doubtful and excluded." The great bulk of these are the forms erroneously credited to the Philippine flora by Naves and Fernandez-Villar in the Novissima Appendix. There being no descriptions published by these authors and no botanical material extant representing their conceptions of what the species were, the only course to follow has been to exclude all the forms listed by them that have not appeared in our collections as botanical exploration has progressed. Accordingly, no further explanation has been given under the numerous genera, but these named species from the Novissima Appendix have merely been listed without discussion. In all other cases, however, a brief explanatory note has been given indicating for each species my reason or reasons for so listing it. The present enumeration presents one distinct advantage over that of F.-Villar and Naves in that all species admitted are represented by extant botanical material, not only by the original collections in the herbarium of the Bureau of Science, but most of the species also by duplicates in various public herbaria of Europe and America.

FLORISTIC RELATIONSHIPS OF THE PHILIPPINES

The Philippine Archipelago is the northeastern projection of the Malay Archipelago proper; and, as is naturally to be expected, we find the floristic alliances of the Philippines to be predominantly Malaysian, some western Malaysian and some eastern Malaysian. At the same time we find certain striking Asiatic elements, especially in the mountains of northern Luzon, that do not occur in any other part of the Malay Archipelago; a rather remarkable series of Australian types both at low and medium altitudes, much stronger than are the similar elements in western Malaysia; as well as certain indications of relationships to such distant regions as New Caledonia, New Zealand, various parts of Polynesia as remote as Hawaii and Tahiti, to the south and east, and to the west with tropical Africa. From the geographic situation of the Archipelago the Asiatic, Malaysian, and Polynesian elements are certainly to be expected in its flora; and, while at first thought Australian elements should hardly be expected, at least in such numbers as prove to exist, yet a careful study of the probable ancient land connections between the Philippines and surrounding regions together with a consideration of Malaysian geologic history, clearly indicates how these reached the Philippines and failed to reach China and Formosa to the north in any considerable numbers, and why, comparatively speaking, these Australian elements are so much weaker in western than in eastern Malaysia and the Philippines (see pp. 127 et seq.).

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* Merrill, E. D., Philip. Journ. Sci. 10 (1915) Bot. 183.

The general subject of the relationships of the Philippine flora was first treated by Rolfe,* followed by a series of papers by myself,† while the phytogeographic relationships of the mosses have been considered by Robinson,‡ and those of the ferns by Copeland.§

The phytogeographic alliances indicated by the Pteridophyta and by the one group of cellular cryptogams mentioned above curiously conform to those indicated by the phanerogams. The Hepaticae appears to conform to the mosses in geographic distribution. In the fungi and algae, from the very nature of these groups, geographic distribution of any particular genus or species is of little significance from the standpoint of origins of a flora. Too little is known regarding the lichens of Malaysia to justify any statement regarding this large group, but the Philippine lichen flora presents Asiatic types on the higher mountains of northern Luzon and apparently some Australian types in Mindanao. Among the latter is *Cladonia retispora* Fr., a characteristic species otherwise known from Australia and New Guinea.

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* Rolfe, R., A., On the flora of the Philippine Islands and its probable derivation, Journ. Linn. Soc. Bot. 21 (1884) 283–316.

† Merrill, E. D., New or noteworthy Philippine plants, V., Philip. Journ. Sci. 1 (1906) Suppl. 169–246, introductory part; The flora of Mount Halcon, Mindoro, op. cit. 2 (1907) Bot. 251–309; On a collection of plants from the Batanes and Babuyanes Islands, op. cit. 3 (1908) 385–442; The Malayan, Australian, and Polynesian elements in the Philippine flora, Ann. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. Suppl. 3 (1909) 277–306; The flora of Mount Pulog (with M. L. Merritt), Philip. Journ. Sci. 5 (1910) Bot. 287–401; Notes on the flora of Manila with special reference to the introduced elements, op. cit. 7 (1912) Bot. 145–208; Distribution of the Dipterocarpaceae; Origin and relationships of the Philippine flora and causes of the differences between the floras of eastern and western Malaysia, op. cit. 22 (1923) 1–33, *t. 1–8.*

‡ Robinson, C. B., The geographic distribution of Philippine mosses, Philip. Journ. Sci. 9 (1914) Bot. 199–218.

§ Copeland, E. B., The comparative ecology of San Ramon Polypodiaceae, Philip. Journ. Sci. 2 (1907) Bot. 1–76; The ferns of Mount Apo, Leafl. Philip. Bot. 3 (1910) 791–851.

Naturally, with the rapid accumulation of data regarding the elements of the Philippine flora and those of surrounding regions, coupled with a greatly increased knowledge of geographic distribution of individual genera and species, some earlier ideas have been found to be untenable, while certain genera and species formerly considered to indicate special alliances have been found to be of much wider geographic distribution than was formerly supposed. Thus, the entire family Stackhousiaceae was for many years known only from Australia, with a single species in Luzon; but the same species or a very closely allied one is now known from Luzon, Guimaras, and the Calamian group in the Philippines; Sumatra; Amboina in the Moluccas; and Yap in the Carolines. *Thysanotus* with about twenty-five species was known only from Australia, with a single species, *T. chinensis* Benth., in Australia, Luzon, and China; but the genus is now known from as far west as lower Siam. *Vavaea,* known for many years by but two species in Polynesia, has now seven known species in the Philippines, at least one in Java, and apparently several others in various parts of the Malay Archipelago.

Future exploration will unquestionably modify the following lists of species indicating special alliances, for we must remember that no large part of the vast Malaysian region from Siam and Indo-China to New Guinea is thoroughly explored, and for certain very large areas, notably Sumatra, parts of Burma, Siam, Indo-China, the Malay Peninsula, Borneo, Celebes, the Moluccas, and much of New Guinea, our botanical knowledge is very fragmentary. The only parts of this vast area which may be considered as satisfactorily explored are the small islands of Penang and Singapore, parts of the Malay Peninsula, probably the most of Java, and parts of the Philippines. Although in 1921, when my enumeration of Bornean plants * was published, over 4,900 species of phanerogams were known from that island (now over 5,250), I have estimated that this number probably represented no more than 50 per cent of the species actually occurring in Borneo, and I still think this estimate approximately correct. The Sumatran, Celebesian, Moluccan, and Papuan floras are, relatively speaking, much less known than the Bornean. Therefore, we are limited by our ignorance of the details of geographic distribution in Malaysia, and we must constantly bear this in mind in discussing the subject. Enough, however, seems to be known to enable us to draw certain conclusions.

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* Merrill, E. D., Bibliographic enumeration of Bornean plants, Journ. Str. Branch Roy. As. Soc., Special Number (1921) 18.

Therefore, I have considered it advisable to give a rather detailed account of the special floristic alliances of the Philippines with surrounding regions, including the Asiatic continent, Formosa, western Malaysia and its component parts, eastern Malaysia and its component parts, Australia, New Caledonia, New Zealand, and Polynesia and, at the same time, a brief review of the corresponding faunistic alliances. What I consider to be reasonable conclusions as to former land connections between what is now the Philippine Archipelago and surrounding regions are stated on pages 151 to 154, and these conclusions are based on geologic, paleontologic, hydrographic, and geographic evidence taken in conjunction with the known geographic distribution of animals and plants in this part of the world.

It is well known that some genera highly developed in distant regions have single or few representatives in the Malaysian region. Thus, in Borneo a single species of the leguminous genus *Baphia* is common; all other known representatives of the genus are confined to tropical Africa. In the Philippines under this type are such groups as the graminaceous genus *Guadua,* with *G. philippinensis* Gamble in the Philippines and all other representatives of the genus confined to tropical America; the cyperaceous genus *Uncinia,* with *U. rupestris* Raoul on the highest mountains of Luzon and Mindanao and in New Zealand and all other representatives found in America (Mexico to Cape Horn), New Zealand, Australia, Tasmania, and New Guinea; the orchidaceous genus *Angraecum,* with *A. philippinense* Ames in the Philippines and all other species confined to tropical Africa and Madagascar; the araceous genus *Spathiphyllum,* with one species in the Philippines and in the Moluccas and all others in tropical America; the leguminous genus *Erythrophloeum,* with a number of species in tropical Africa and Madagascar, one in the

Philippines (common and widely distributed), one in southern China, one in Indo-China, and one in northeastern Australia; the loranthaceous genus *Phrygilanthus,* with *P. obtusifolius* Merr. in the Philippines and the numerous other representatives in Australia, with one in New Guinea; the euphorbiaceous genus *Omphalea,* with several species in tropical America, one in Australia, and four in the Philippines, three of which occur in Borneo; the icacinaceous genus *Villaresia* (*Cheiressa*), with a few species in tropical America, one in Polynesia, one in Java, and two in the Philippines; and the lecythidaceous genus *Petersianthus* (*Petersia*), with one species in the Philippines and the others confined to tropical Africa. No explanation is offered regarding the anomalous distribution of the representatives of these genera except that the generic range was apparently attained at an early date and that the outlying species have persisted as relic types. In some cases these widely distributed genera may be of diphyletic or polyphyletic origin.

ASIA

The Asiatic (continental) elements in the Philippine flora are largely but not wholly confined to medium and higher altitudes in northern Luzon, and some genera and species occur here that are otherwise entirely absent in Malaysia. At low altitudes, however, a few Asiatic genera occur which are not recorded from Malaysia. Among these are *Trichadenia, Stixis, Allaeanthus, Kingiodendron, Ambylanthopsis, Symphorema, Litchi,* and *Gleditschia* (also in Celebes).

The one Asiatic type that is dominant over considerable areas in northern and central Luzon (Mountain Province and parts of Nueva Vizcaya and Zambales Provinces) and in a much smaller area in western Mindoro is *Pinus,* represented by *P. insularis* Endl. and *P. merkusii* Jungh. and DeVr. Outside of Sumatra the genus is not definitely known from the Malaysian region south of Indo-China and Siam. *Taxus wallichiana* Zucc. occurs on the higher mountains of northern Luzon and on Mount Banahao; it is also recorded from Celebes. At medium and higher altitudes are found such representative northern genera as *Agrostis, Anthoxanthum, Arthraxon, Arundinaria, Brachypodium, Bromus, Calamagrostis, Coelachne, Deschampsia, Muehlenbergia, Poa,* and *Tripogon,* in the Gramineae; and in the Cyperaceae numerous species of *Carex,* some northern types of *Scirpus*, and of a few other genera occur. Other families are represented by such characteristically northern genera as the following:

Juncus.
Luzula.
Aletris.
Asparagus.
Disporum.
Lilium.
Liriope.
Ophiopogon.
Saururus.
Salix.
Myrica.
Chamabainia.
Distemon.
Lecanthus.
Thesium.
Arenaria.
Sagina.
Stellaria.
Anemone.
Ranunculus.
Thalictrum.
Cardamine.
Sedum.
Astilbe.
Deutzia.
Hydrangea.
Itea.
Sycopsis.
Duchesnea.
Photinia.
Rosa.
Rubus.
Dumasia.
Lespedeza.
Shuteria.
Boenninghausenia.
Skimmia.
Polygala.
Buxus.
Sarcococca.
Ilex.
Pistacia.
Acer.
Berchemia.
Rhamnus.
Sageretia.
Vitis.
Hypericum.
Viola.
Daphne.
Sarcopyramis.
Acanthopanax.
Aralia.
Sanicula.
Rhododendron.
Vaccinium.
Androsace.
Lysimachia.
Fraxinus.
Ligustrum.
Crawfurdia.
Gentiana.
Hoppea.
Swertia.
Bothriospermum.
Cynoglossum.
Trigonotis.
Ajuga.
Satureia.
Mosla.
Salvia.
Scutellaria.
Teucrium.
Alectra.
Bythophytum.
Ellisiophyllum.
Hemiphragma.
Sopubia.
Veronica.
Galium.
Lonicera.
Viburnum.
Lobelia.
Peracarpa.
Wahlenbergia.
Ainsliaea.
Anaphalis.
Anisopappus.
Artemisia.
Aster.

Bidens.
Carpesium.
Cirsium.
Ethulia.
Eupatorium.
Gnaphalium.
Lactuca.
Myriactis.
Senecio.
Solidago.

Representatives of these genera are found for the most part only at medium and higher altitudes, and chiefly, although not entirely, on the mountains of northern Luzon.

Outside of northern Luzon no representatives of the following characteristically Asiatic or northern genera are recorded from any part of the Malaysian region, except as indicated:

Taxus (also in Celebes and Sumatra).
Anthoxanthum.
Lilium.
Liriope.
Saururus.
Thesium.
Arenaria.
Anemone (also in Sumatra).
Sedum.
Deutzia.
Sycopsis.
Rosa.
Skimmia.
Buxus.
Pistacia.
Litchi.
Acanthopanax.
Androsace.
Hoppea.
Trigonotis (also in Sumatra).
Ajuga (also in Ternate).
Salvia.
Mosla (also in Sumatra).
Bythophytum.
Ellisiophyllum.
Hemiphragma.
Peracarpa.
Ainsliaea (also in Sumatra).
Aster.
Solidago.
Carpesium (also in Sumatra).
Anisopappus.
Artemisia.
Senecio (excluding *Emilia*).

In addition to these rather numerous genera that occur in the Philippines (chiefly confined to Luzon) which do not extend to Malaysia, there are *Stixis, Allaeanthus, Kingiodendron, Amblyanthopsis* (one also in New Guinea), *Trichadenia, Symphorema,* and *Litchi* and *Gleditschia,* chiefly of low-altitude distribution, mentioned above, making a total of thirty-four Asiatic (continental) genera occurring naturally in the Philippines that have not been recorded from any part of the Malay Peninsula or Archipelago.

While many of these northern types are widely distributed in the North Temperate Zone, others are rather limited to certain parts of Asia outside of the Philippines; namely, the Himalayan region, China, Formosa, and Japan. I interpret much of this continental element in northern Luzon as primarily a central Asiatic Himalayan or foothill element, including the following genera:

Chamabainia.
Distemon.
Lecanthus.
Anemone.
Shuteria.
Boenninghausenia.
Sarcococca.
Daphne.
Sarcopyramis.
Crawfurdia.
Hoppea.
Swertia.
Alectra.
Bythophytum.
Ellisiophyllum.
Hemiphragma.
Sopubia.
Peracarpa.
Ainsliaea.
Anaphalis.
Carpesium.
Ethulia.
Myriactis.

Most of these genera are not represented in the Philippines by endemic species, while all or almost all of the Philippine representatives, except of *Bythophytum,* have been found in Formosa.

In this connection it is important to note that Robinson * definitely concluded from an intensive study of the distribution of Philippine mosses that the flora of Mountain Province, Luzon, is not strictly Malaysian, but is related to it in much the same way as is that of Sikkim, Nepal, or Khasia. He found that twenty-two nonendemic Mountain Province mosses were unknown from any part of Malaysia, many of these being found otherwise only in the mountains of India, some in India to China and Japan, and a few in Formosa or Japan or both.

Chinese species, as such, as distinguished from Indian and other continental forms, are not numerous in the Philippines. A few species are known only from southern China and the Philippines, but the list is rather insignificant, including *Morinda parvifolia* Bartl., *Flemingia prostrata* Merr. and Rolfe, *Eremochloa leersioides* Munro, and *Ardisia reptans* Merr.

It is well known that many Asiatic genera occur in the Sunda Islands that do not occur in the Philippines. Among these are *Primula, Potentilla, Hierochloe, Avena, Gymnopogon, Festuca, Neillia, Alchimilla, Agrimonia, Pimpinella, Styrax, Lithospermum,* and *Valeriana.* It thus seems to be evident that there have been two lines of migration of Asiatic types into Malaysia, one through the Eastern Peninsula and Sumatra to Java and Borneo, and the other through southeastern Asia, Formosa, and the Philippines. Many of these eastern migrants extended no farther south than Luzon, but others reached Mindanao, and some (such as *Taxus, Gleditschia,* and *Sopubia*) even Celebes.

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* Robinson, C. B., The geographic distribution of Philippine mosses, Philip. Journ. Sci. 9 (1914) Bot. 199–218.

FORMOSA *

Formosa, lying north of the Philippines and within sight of Y'Ami, the northernmost island of the Philippine Archipelago, has been included by Engler and Gilg † in the botanical province of the Philippines and Formosa; but the entire biologic evidence is that Formosa presents little in common with the Philippines, that its alliances are with Asia, and that Formosa and the Philippines cannot be properly placed in the same botanical province in spite of their geographic proximity. Incidentally, in this connection, it is to be noted that Formosa is separated from the northernmost island of the Philippine group by a deep channel; on the other hand, it lies on the continental shelf. The entire Formosan channel between the island and the Asiatic coast does not exceed 150 meters in depth and for the most part is much shallower than this. From a geologic standpoint it is evident that there has been no direct connection between Formosa and the Philippines since the early Tertiary; and, from the available data, the same is true biologically.

Fortunately, for purposes of comparison, the Formosan flora is remarkably well known, due especially to the efforts of Dr. B. Hayata and other Japanese botanists who have explored the island. Most of the actual botanical work, however, has been that of Doctor Hayata.

In 1917 Hayata ‡ published a general index to the Formosan flora, consisting of a systematic list of all of the flowering plants and ferns recorded from Formosa up to the publication of part six of his Icones Plantarum Formosanarum in 1917. Since 1917 four additional volumes of the Icones have been issued.§ In the general index, including the ferns and fern allies, 3,446 species were enumerated as indigenous to Formosa. The additions included in the four volumes of the Icones issued since 1917 bring the total up to 3,658 species distributed into 1,185 genera and 170 families, following the arrangement of Bentham and Hooker's Genera Plantarum. It should be noted that these figures include also the ferns and the fern allies.

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* Merrill, E. D., Die pflanzengeographische Scheidung von Formosa und den Philippinen. Engl. Bot. Jahrb. **58** (1923) 599–604.

† Engler, A., and E. Gilg., Syllabus der Pflanzenfamilien, ed. 8 (1919) 361.

‡ Hayata, B., General Index to the Flora of Formosa (1917) 1–155.

§ Hayata, B., Icones Plantarum Formosanarum **7** (1918) 1–107, *t. 1–141, f. 1–69;* **8** (1919) 1–164, *t. 1–15, f. 1–88;* **9** (1920) 1–155, *t. 1–7, f. 1–55;* **10** (1921) 1–74, *f. 1–48.*

Hayata's list enumerates certain families that have indigenous representatives in Formosa but none in the Philippines; these are the Valerianaceae, Dipsaceae, Monotropaceae, Diapensiaceae, Styraceae, Myoporaceae, and Phylidraceae. By way of further contrast, certain families represented in the Philippines by numerous genera and species, or by numerous species, such as the Anonaceae, Meliaceae, Guttiferae, Sterculiaceae, Burseraceae, Combretaceae, Myrtaceae, Gesneraceae, Bignoniaceae, Piperaceae, Sapotaceae, Melastomataceae, Begoniaceae, Pandanaceae, Palmae, and others, are scantily represented in Formosa. On the other hand, the families Ranunculaceae, Berberidaceae, Cruciferae, Papaveraceae, Violaceae, Caryophyllaceae, Aquifoliaceae, Celastraceae, Rosaceae, Saxifragaceae, Crassulaceae, Umbelliferae, Caprifoliaceae, Campanulaceae, Gentianaceae, Pinaceae, and Liliaceae are infinitely better represented in Formosa than in the Philippines. It is to be noted that most of the families mentioned in the first list are those largely characteristic of tropical regions, while those mentioned in the second list are largely characteristic of temperate regions.

In contrast to the several families of plants having indigenous representatives in Formosa and none in the Philippine Archipelago may be mentioned the following Philippine families which have no representatives in Formosa: Triruridaceae, Centrolepidaceae, Monimiaceae, Nepenthaceae, Cunoniaceae, Erythroxylaceae, Dichapetalaceae, Stackhousiaceae, Gonystylaceae, Ochnaceae, Dipterocarpaceae, Datiscaceae, Clethraceae, Epacridaceae, Salvadoraceae, and Stylidiaceae. These families, with a few exceptions that must be considered as Australian types, such as Centrolepidaceae, Stackhousiaceae, Epacridaceae, and Stylidiaceae, are for the most part characteristically tropical groups. The most striking case is perhaps that represented by the family Dipterocarpaceae, whose center of distribution appears to be Borneo, and which is represented in the Philippines by nine genera and fifty species. The trees of this family are dominant in the primary forests practically throughout the Philippines, as they are in Borneo, Sumatra, and the Malay Peninsula. Five genera, *Anisoptera, Hopea, Pentacme, Shorea,* and *Vatica* extend northward into the Babuyan Islands between Luzon and Formosa, where each genus is represented by one species.

Of the 1,185 genera having indigenous representatives in Formosa, no less than 265 have no representatives in the Philippines. Among those genera are such characteristic continental and temperate types as the following:

Abies.
Chamaecyparis.
Cunninghamia.
Juniperus.
Libocedrus.
Picea.
Pseudotsuga.
Tsuga.
Trillium.
Smilicina.
Aira.
Alopecurus.
Apios.
Astragalus.
Lotus.
Vicia.
Agrimonia.
Cononeaster.
Malus.
Pirus.
Potentilla.
Sanguisorbia.
Sorbus.
Spiraea.
Mitella.
Parnassia.
Ribes.
Saxifraga.
Circaea.
Angelica.
Apium.
Bupleurum.
Pimpinella.
Peucedanum.
Hedera.
Cornus.
Abelia.
Cephalanthus.
Patrinia.
Valeriana.
Gerbera.
Patasites.
Taraxacum.
Chimaphila.
Moneses.
Pieris.
Pyrola.
Monotropa.
Primula.
Aconitum.
Coptis.
Podophyllum.
Nuphar.
Corydalis.
Arabis.
Dianthus.
Silene.
Cuscuta.
Paulownia.
Pedicularis.
Orobanche.
Elscholtzia.
Glechoma.
Lamium.
Prunella.
Asarum.
Humulus.
Ulmus.
Juglans.
Alnus.
Carpinus.
Corylus.
Fagus.

In contrast to this we find that, of approximately 1,308 genera having indigenous representatives in the Philippines, about 660 are unrepresented in the Formosan flora.

Not a single genus known is confined to the Philippines and Formosa; and the species having this limited distribution are curiously few, considering the proximity of the Philippines and Formosa and the distinctly similar climatic and physiographic conditions. A careful examination of Hayata's list accompanied by a considerable amount of comparative work in the herbarium, where I have had opportunity to compare fairly ample collections of Formosan with Philippine material, presents about forty species that are known only from the Philippines and Formosa. In the following list the abbreviation W following a name indicates adaptation for dissemination by wind and the abbreviation B indicates adaptation for dissemination through the medium of birds. A high percentage of the species common and confined to Formosa and the Philippines occur in the Philippines only north of central Luzon.

Pterospermum niveum Vid. (*P. formosanum* Mats.). W.
Ryssopteris cumingiana Juss. W.
Fagara integrifoliola Merr.
Coriaria intermedia Mats. B.
Acacia confusa Merr.
Deutzia pulchra Vid. W.
Astronia pulchra Vid. W.
Sarcopyramis delicata C. B. Rob. B.
Aralia hypoleuca Presl. B.
Alsomitra integrifoliola Hay. W.
Boerlagiodendron pectinatum Merr. B.
Viburnum luzonicum Rolfe. B.
Lasianthus tashiroi Mats. B.
Isanthera discolor Max.
Ainslaea reflexa Merr. W.
Gynura elliptica Yabe and Hay. W.
Gaultheria cumingiana Vid. B.
Palaquium formosanum Hay.
Hypoestes cumingiana F.-Vill.
Callicarpa formosana Rolfe. B.
Scutellaria luzonica Rolfe.
Knema glomerata Merr. B.
Myristica simiarum A. DC. B.
Illigera luzonensis Merr. W.
Macaranga dipterocarpifolia Merr. B?
Euphorbia makinoi Hay.
Elatostema edulis C. B. Rob.
Oreocnide trinervis Miq. B.
Leucosyke quadrinervia C. B. Rob. B.
Lilium philippinense Bak. W.
Eriocaulon merrillii Ruhl.
Isachne debilis Rendle.
Rourea volubilis Merr.
Stellaria laxa Merr.
Bergia serrata Blanco.
Aglaia elliptifolia Merr. B.
Aglaia formosana Hay. B.

The following list includes more widely distributed Formosan species that also extend from Japan or the Riu Kiu Islands to China, Formosa, and the Philippines. Like those in the previous list, they are found in the Philippines chiefly north of central Luzon, and a high percentage of the species occur in the Philippines only at medium and higher altitudes. They are as follows:

Sageretia theezans Brongn.
Celastrus diversifolius Hemsl.
Ilex asprella Hance.
Ilex crenata Thunb.
Pistacia chinensis Bunge.
Acalypha australis L.
Skimmia japonica Thunb.
Evodia meliaefolia Benth.
Rhynchosia volubilis Lour.
Desmodium buergeri Miq.

Cocculus trilobus DC.
Salvia scaphiformis Hance.
Bothriospermum tenellum F. & M.
Lactuca dentata C. B. Rob.
Lactuca indica Linn.
Eupatorium lindleyanum DC.
Eupatorium reevesii Wall.
Eupatorium japonicum Thunb.
Artemisia capillaris Thunb.
Artemisia japonica Thunb.
Clerodendron trichotomum Thunb.
Androsace umbellata Merr.
Acanthopanax trifoliatus Merr.
Melastoma candidum Don.
Scolopia oldhami Hance.
Columella corniculata Merr.
Ampelopsis heterophylla S. & Z.
Photinia serrulata Lindl.
Polygonum benguetense Merr.
Boehmeria densiflora H. & A.
Saururus chinensis Baill.
Potamogeton maackianus Benn.
Tripogon chinensis Hack.
Carex ligata Boott.
Carex tristachya Thunb.
Phoenix hanceana Naud.
Acorus gramineus Sol.
Asparagus lucidus Lindl.
Aletris spicata Franch.
Lilium longiflorum Thunb.
Liriope graminifolia Bak.
Ophiopogon japonicus Ker.

Representatives of even more widely distributed species in such genera as *Solidago, Aster, Anemone, Boenninghausenia, Deschampsia, Agrostis, Viola, Ellisiophyllum, Peracarpa, Senecio,* and *Hemiphragma,* some of which must certainly be considered Himalayan types (for example, *Anemone vitifolia, Peracarpa, Ellisiophyllum,* and *Hemiphragma*), occur in Formosa and in the mountains of northern Luzon. The Himalayan types found in both Formosa and Luzon present the most southeastern extension of the Himalayan flora, and many of these doubtless reached Formosa when it was a part of the Asiatic continent and probably sufficiently early to reach Luzon when Luzon was connected with Formosa; this must have been in the early Tertiary before the Formosan rift (the Bashi Channel) was formed.

The Australian element is relatively well developed in the Philippines, and in many genera the various species extend as far as northern Luzon. Representative Australian types are such genera as *Calogyne* (also in Fukien Province, China), *Stylidium, Centrolepis, Eucalyptus, Stackhousia, Microlaena, Cladium, Pleiogynium, Phrygilanthus, Quintinia, Xanthostemon, Osbornia, Camptostemon, Patersonia,* and *Didiscus,* all of which are represented in the Philippines by indigenous species. The Australian element is very weak in Formosa, being practically confined to *Halorrhagis,* the phyllodinous *Acacia confusa* Merr. (Formosa and Luzon), and *Ipomoea polymorpha* R. and S. (Formosa, northern Luzon, and northern Australia). *Oreomyrrhis* has one species in Formosa, one in Borneo, and several in Australia, New Zealand, and South America, but none in the Philippines; while *Myoporum,* largely but not wholly an Australian genus, is represented in Formosa by one species, but no representative of the genus occurs in the Philippines or in Malaysia. The even stronger Papuan, Celebesian, and Moluccan elements in the Philippine flora are entirely absent from Formosa, although many extend to northern Luzon and some (*Wallaceodendron*) into the Babuyan Islands.

It is noteworthy that practically none of the Australian types present in the Philippine flora and none of our Celebesian, Moluccan, and Papuan types extend to Formosa, which indicates an early or continuous separation geologically between Formosa and Luzon, as the connections between the Philippines and the islands to the south and southeast existed probably during Pliocene and Pleistocene times. That the separation between Luzon and Formosa was earlier than the Pliocene is evidenced by the lack of Dipterocarpaceae in Formosa, for the geologic record shows that in Pliocene times representatives of this family were present and apparently dominant in Luzon. There are, of course, strong Malaysian elements in the Formosan flora, but it seems probable that these Malaysian types reached Formosa through Indo-China and southern China at a time when Formosa was a part of the Asiatic continent and this was actually the geologic condition of Formosa in the Pleistocene.

BORNEO

Considering the proximity of the Philippines to Borneo and the manifest evidences of former land connections the genera and species of plants confined to Borneo and the Philippines are distinctly few, much fewer than the genera and species confined to the Philippines and the islands to the south and southeast.

The only known genera having this restricted distribution are *Clemensia,* monotypic (Borneo, Basilan, and Zamboanga Peninsula); *Myrmeconauclea,* monotypic (Borneo and Palawan); *Philbornea,* two species, one in Borneo and one in Palawan; *Hallieracantha,* with about thirty species, all confined to Borneo except four or five which are found in Palawan and southeastern Mindanao; *Cowiea,* with one species in Borneo and one in Zamboanga Peninsula; and *Beccarianthus,* with one species in Borneo and one in the Philippines, extending from southern Luzon to Mindanao. There are, then, but six known genera confined to Borneo and the Philippines, while only one of these extends into the Archipelago proper.

Relatively speaking, the special alliances between Borneo and the Philippines as shown by species is scarcely more pronounced. About sixty-six species are known only from Borneo and the Philippines, and at least twenty of these (indicated by an asterisk in the following list) scarcely penetrate farther into the Archipelago than Palawan and the Calamianes; a very few are found in western Mindoro to the north and in western Panay, the Sulu Archipelago, and Zamboanga Peninsula to the south. These Bornean Philippine species are:

Phyllocladus hypophyllus Hook. f.
Podocarpus brevifolius Foxw.*
Halophila beccarii Aschers.
Sciaphila clemensiae Hemsl.
Dinochloa luconiae Merr.
Dinochloa pubiramea Merr.
Eriocaulon brevipedunculatum Merr.*
Mapania affinis Merr.*
Hypolytrum scirpoides Merr.
Dioscorea flabellifolia Prain and Burkill.
Patersonia lowii Stapf.*
Phacelophrynium interruptum K. Schum.
Quercus reflexa King.
Cyclophorus brunneolus Elm.
Laportea mindanaensis C. B. Rob.
Oreocnide trinervis Wedd. (also in Formosa).
Artocarpus superba Becc.*
Artocarpus odoratissima Blanco (probably introduced in the Philippines).*
Ficus integrifolia Elm.
Kadsura apoensis Elm.
Pipturus arborescens C. B. Rob.
Matthaea calophylla Perk.
Polyalthia dolichophylla Merr.
Myristica guatteriaefolia A. DC.
Knema glomerata Merr.
Dehaasia triandra Merr.
Ellipanthus mindanaensis Merr.*
Albizzia scandens Merr.*
Dalbergia subalternifolia Merr.*
Koompassia excelsa Taub.*
Evodia bintoco Blanco.
Santiria samarensis Merr.
Dichapetalum holopetalum Merr.*
Clemensia macrantha Merr.*
Xanthophyllum cordatum Chod.
Agrostistachys leptostachya Pax and Hoffm.*
Cleistanthus blancoi Rolfe.
Cleistanthus megacarpa C. B. Rob.
Daphniphyllum borneense Stapf.
Iodes philippinensis Merr.
Omphalea bracteata Merr.
Omphalea malayana Merr.
Omphalea sargentii Merr.*
Mallotus lackeyi Elm.
Euphoria stellulata Radlk.
Tetrastigma trifoliolatum Merr.
Grewia stylocarpa Warb.
Camptostemon philippinense Becc.
Hydnocarpus hutchinsonii Merr.
Crypteronia cumingii Pl.
Barringtonia curranii Merr.*
Carallia mindanaensis Merr.*
Eugenia alcinae Merr.*
Eugenia elliptilimba Merr.*
Eugenia myrtillus Stapf.
Ardisia copelandii Mez.
Ardisia pyramidalis A. DC.
Ardisia serrata Pers.
Discocalyx cybianthoides Mez.
Symplocos polyandra Brand.
Strychnos ignatii Berg.
Solanum epiphyticum Merr.
Myrmeconauclea strigosa Merr.*
Uncaria insignis DC.
Uncaria perrottetii Merr.
Neonauclea formicaria Merr.

The monotypic genus *Astrothalamus* occurs in Borneo, Mindanao, and the Marianne Islands; while *Discocalyx*, largely a Philippine genus, has one species in Borneo and a few in the Marianne Islands, New Guinea, and Polynesia.

Specific Australian types occurring at low altitudes in both Borneo and the Philippines are *Osbornia octodonta* F. Muell. (monotypic) and *Camptostemon* with one species in Borneo and the Philippines and one in northern Australia. At higher altitudes, in both Borneo and the Philippines, there are some species that also occur in Celebes and New Guinea; namely, *Didiscus saniculaefolius* Merr., *Euphrasia borneensis* Stapf, *Patersonia lowii* Stapf, and *Drimys piperita* Hook. f. *Centrolepis* is represented in Borneo by one species and in Mindoro by a very closely allied form. *Gaultheria borneensis* Stapf, allied to New Zealand forms, occurs in Borneo, Luzon, and Formosa; while the one Bornean *Ranunculus*, like the two Luzon species, is allied to Australian and New Zealand forms. The very peculiar fern *Blechum fraseri* Luerss. occurs on Mount Kinabalu, on the higher mountains of the Philippines in Luzon, Mindoro, Negros, and Mindanao, and in New Zealand.

The genera *Coprosma, Oreomyrrhis,* and *Drapetes,* all Australian types, occur on Mount Kinabalu in Borneo but have not been found in the Philippines.

The special Bornean alliances, as indicated by but six genera and about sixty-six species known only from Borneo and the Philippines, are distinctly not so strong as the special Papuan, Celebesian, and Moluccan alliances (see p. 96) where no less than ten genera and ninety species have this indicated restricted range. However, the Bornean alliances indicate only a part of the story as to connections with western Malaysia. Although special alliances between Java, Sumatra, and the Malay Peninsula with the Philippines add but few to the list, the rather large list of the inclusive western Malaysian genera and species extending into the Philippines is significant.

JAVA

The flora of Java is particularly well known, yet but two genera are known only from Java and the Philippines; these are *Asthenochloa* (*Garnotiella*), monotypic, and *Hebecoccus*, with one species in Java and two in the Philippines. Among the comparatively few species having this restricted known range may be mentioned the following:

Setaria laxa Merr.
Panicum caudiglume Hack.
Asthenochloa tenera Büse.
Amorphophallus variabilis Bl.
Myrica javanica Blume.
Urtica bullata Blume.
Capparis tylophylla Spreng.
Phyllanthus lamprophyllus M.-A.
Phyllanthus buxifolius M.-A.
Sumbaviopsis albicans J. J. Sm. (monotypic, also in Sumatra).
Tragia hirsuta Blume.
Cassia divaricata Nees and Bl.
Eugenia decipiens K. and V.
Garcinia lateriflora Blume.
Gynostemma simplicifolium Bl.
Sloanea javanica Scyz.
Citriobatus javanicus Boerl. and Koord.

It is only reasonable to expect that all Javan species extending to the Philippines occur also in Borneo or in Celebes, and doubtless all of the above-named species will eventually be found in one or in both of these islands.

SUMATRA AND THE MALAY PENINSULA

No attempt has been made to indicate any Sumatran-Philippine alliance, because any Sumatran species that occurs also in the Philippines must almost of necessity occur also in Borneo. Moreover, the comparatively few data on the Sumatran flora are not in available form. The Malay Peninsula and Sumatra present the genus *Kunstleria* with five species there and two in the Philippines, while the genus *Megistostigma* with two species presents one in the Malay Peninsula and one in Luzon. *Microphium* is represented by one species in the Malay Peninsula and one in Palawan.

There is, however, almost no known species common and confined to the Malay Peninsusula and the Philippines, for the reason indicated for Sumatra; any Malay Peninsula species occurring in the Philippines must almost of necessity occur also in Borneo.

WESTERN MALAYSIA AS A WHOLE

If we consider western Malaysia as a whole, that is, the Malay Peninsula, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, and the contiguous smaller islands west of Lombok and the Macassar Strait, we find a long list of species occurring in two or more of these regions that also extend into the Philippines. I have noted (p. 148) that no less than three hundred fifty-six genera occur in western Malaysia that do not extend east of Wallace's Line except in the Philippines, where two hundred eighteen, or about 61 per cent, have representatives. This clearly indicates a fundamental relationship between the floras of western Malaysia and the Philippines.

There is distinct evidence of a migration into the Philippines around the western and southern boundaries of the China Sea or from the land area formerly existing where the very broad continental shelf exists south of the Siam Peninsula; that is, from what is now the Malay Peninsula, Sumatra, and Borneo. Many of these species, indicated by an asterisk in the following list, extend into the Archipelago only as far as the Sulu Archipelago and Zamboanga Peninsula to the south, and to Palawan and the Calamian Islands, and a very few to western Mindoro on the north. These may well represent migrations of a much later date than those of the time the Dipterocarpaceae (p. 128) reached the Archipelago and became dominant. Most of the species listed here extend from the Malay Peninsula through Borneo or through Sumatra and Borneo to the Philippines, some extending to Java, while a few are known only from Java and Borneo, or Java and Sumatra, and the Philippines.

Dacrydium falciforme Pilg.*
Panicum cordatum Büse.
Cladium latifolium Merr.
Scleria motleyi C. B. Clarke.
Calamus dimorphacanthus Becc.
Calamus ornatus Blume.
Caryota mitis Lour.*
Ophiopogon malayanus Ridl.*
Castanopsis javanica A. DC.
Castanopsis inermis Benth. and Hook. f.
Quercus bennettii Miq.
Quercus cyrtorhyncha Miq.
Loranthus ferrugineus Roxb.*
Knema glauca Warb.
Eusideroxylon zwageri T. and B. (monotypic).*
Angelesia splendens Korth. (monotypic).
Parinarium costatum Blume.
Rubus piriformis Sm.
Mezoneurum sumatranum W. and A.
Spatholobus gyrocarpus Benth.
Heynea sumatrana Miq.
Walsura multijuga King.
Kunstleria (several species in the Malay Peninsula, two in the Philippines).
Xanthophyllum robustum Chod.
Croton heterophyllus Muell.-Arg.*
Glochidion rubrum Blume.
Macaranga triloba Muell.-Arg.*
Mallotus miquelianus Boerl.*
Ostodes macrophyllus Benth. and Hook. f.
Wetria macrophylla J. J. Sm.
Mangifera longipes Griff.*
Elaeodendron viburnifolium Merr.*
Euonymus javanicus Blume.
Kurrimia paniculata Wall.
Guioa pleuropteris Radlk.
Guioa pubescens Radlk.
Nephelium chryseum Blume.*
Pranephelium xestophyllum Miq. (monotypic).
Pseudonephelium fumatum Radlk. (monotypic).
Meliosma sumatrana Walp.

Brownlowia lanceolata Benth.
Dillenia excelsa Gilg.*
Thea lanceolata Pierre (also in Celebes).
Calophyllum kunstleri King.
Garcinia nervosa Miq.*
Anisoptera curtisii Dyer.
Dipterocarpus grandiflorus Blco.
Dipterocarpus hasseltii Blume.
Hopea pierrei Hance.
Isoptera borneensis Scheff. (monotypic).*
Shorea balangeran Dyer.
Shorea eximia Scheff.
Shorea teysmanniana Dyer.
Taraktogenos heterophylla Van Sloot.
Scolopia spinosa Warb.*
Aquilaria malaccensis Lam.
Gynotroches axillaris Blume.
Pellacalyx axillaris Korth.*
Combretum sundaicum Miq.
Eugenia besukiensis Merr.
Medinilla hasseltii Blume.*
Memecylon myrtilli Blume.
Memecylon oligoneuron Blume.
Memecylon paniculatum Jack.
Ochthocharis javanica Blume.
Embelia coriacea Wall.*
Labisia pumila F.-Vill.*
Diospyros buxifolia Hiern.
Symplocos adenophylla Wall.*
Symplocos confusa Brand.
Jasminum crassifolium Blume.
Linociera paludosa K. and G.*
Fagraea cochinchinensis A. Chev.*
Cotylanthera tenuis Blume.
Alstonia angustifolia Wall.*
Alstonia angustiloba Miq.*
Alyxia lucida Wall.*
Centrostemma multiflorum Dcne.
Erycibe griffithii C. B. Clarke.
Clerodendron villosum Blume.*
Vitex pubescens Vahl.*
Cyrtandra oblongifolia Benth. and Hook. f.
Hemigraphis hirsuta T. And.
Hedyotis rigida Miq.
Hydnophytum formicarium Jack.
Ixora salicifolia Blume.
Lasianthus inaequalis Blume.
Lasianthus stipularis Blume.
Nauclea junghuhnii Merr.
Petunga longifolia DC.*
Petunga racemosa K. Schum.*
Psychotria malayana Jack.*
Uncaria canescens Korth.
Xanthophytum fruticulosum Reinw.
Didymocarpus.
Microphium.

EASTERN AND SOUTHEASTERN MALAYSIA

It is recorded (p. 148) that, of the three hundred fifty-six genera in western Malaysia not known east of Wallace's Line, two hundred eighteen, or about 61 per cent, reach the Philippines; while of the two hundred twenty-five genera in eastern and southeastern Malaysia that do not extend west of Wallace's Line fifty-six, or about 25 per cent, do reach the Philippines. From this distribution it would seem that the geographic connections between the Philippines and other parts of Malaysia in past geologic times had been earlier, more pronounced, and longer continued with western than with eastern Malaysia. Until the comparison was made on this basis I was of the opinion that the special alliances of the Philippine flora were stronger with eastern than with western Malaysia; and, if genera and species restricted to the Philippines and either one or the other of the regions indicated be considered, this may be true.

CELEBES

For about twenty years it has been known that there were distinct evidences of a close alliance between the flora of Celebes and that of the Philippines, and as botanical exploration of the Philippines progressed the evidence became more pronounced. It also developed that there were similar alliances between the Philippines and other islands to the south and southeast (Gilolo, the Moluccas, New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, and New Caledonia), and the list of Australian types occurring in the Philippines has been largely increased.

Schlechter * states that there are probably few regions not difficult of access in the Tropics the flora of which is so little known as is that of Celebes, and he thinks this lack of knowledge the more astonishing when it is considered that the geographic location of Celebes, between two floral regions, proclaims it to be of special interest from a botanical standpoint. Considerable botanical exploration has been done in Celebes, so that we do have a general knowledge of its flora; but as compared with Java, Borneo, the Malay Peninsula, or the Philippines we know comparatively little regarding it.

The following species are known only from the Philippines and Celebes:

Podocarpus pilgeri Foxw.
Calamus symphysipus Mart.
Aglaonema haenkei Schott.
Alocasia heterophylla Merr.
Scindapsus falcifolius Engl.
Pleomele multiflora Merr.
Quercus minahassae Koord.
Ficus luzonensis Merr.
Ficus minahassae Miq.
Pycnarrhena celebica Diels.
Kibara obtusa Blume.
Spiraeopsis celebica Miq.
Dalbergia mimosella Prain.
Gleditschia rolfei Vid.
Pithecolobium subacutum Benth.
Pueraria pulcherrima Merr.
Wallaceodendron celebicum Koord. (monotypic).
Aglaia macrobotrys Turcz.
Reinwardtiodendron celebicum Koord. (monotypic).
Glochidion album Boerl (also in Formosa).
Neotrewia cumingii Pax and Hoffm. (monotypic).
Strophioblachia fimbricalyx Boerl. (monotypic; also in Indo-China).
Dracontomelum dao Merr and Rolfe.
Euphorianthus obtusatus Radlk.
Zizyphus inermis Merr.
Elaeocarpus cumingii Turcz.
Elaeocarpus multiflorus F.-Vill.
Sterculia oblongata R. Br.
Tarrietia sylvatica Merr.

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* Schlechter, R., Zur Kenntniss der Orchidaceen von Celebes, Fedde Repert. 10 (1911) 1-40; 66-96; 177-213.

Dillenia ochreata T. and B.
Ternstroemia toquian F.-Vill.
Cratoxylon celebicum Blume.
Osmelia celebica Koord.
Begonia pseudo-lateralis Warb.
Gyrinopsis cumingiana Decne.
Astronia cumingiana Vidal.
Medinilla cumingii Naud.
Medinilla myrtiformis Triana.
Acanthophora scandens Merr. (monotypic).
Clethra canescens Reinw.
Palaquium celebicum Burck.
Couthovia celebica Koord.
Fagraea plumeriaefolia A. DC.
Tabernaemontana mucronata Merr.
Hoya gracilis Schltr. (*H. imbricata* and *H. pseudomaxima* Koord., with one Celebesian species form a subgenus confined to Celebes and the Philippines).
Clerodendron minahassae T. and B.
Premna cumingiana Schauer.
Hemigraphis cumingiana F.-Vill.
Hemigraphis rapifera Hall. f.
Ixora macrophylla Bartl.
Ixora philippinensis Merr. (also in Borneo).
Myrmephytum (a genus with two species, one in Mindanao, one in Celebes).
Scaevola minahassae Koord.

Among genera, *Wallaceodendron, Reinwardtiodendron, Neotrewia, Acanthophora, Strophioblachia,* and *Myrmephytum* are confined to Celebes and the Philippines (except *Strophioblachia* which extends to Indo-China), while a section of *Hoya,* with three species, has the same restricted range. The six genera confined to Borneo and the Philippines, with one exception, do not, as a rule, extend into the Archipelago proper, but merely into its western parts; on the other hand the Philippine-Celebesian genera, except *Myrmephytum,* are scattered from Mindanao to Luzon, *Wallaceodendron* even extending into the Babuyan Islands. Most of the Philippine-Celebesian species are also widely distributed in the Philippines, although some, within the Archipelago, are confined to Mindanao. None of these Philippine-Celebesian types reaches Formosa.

THE MOLUCCAS, GILOLO, AND NEW GUINEA

Schlechter * has concluded that the Celebesian-Moluccan flora as such, on the basis of the Orchidaceae alone, can scarcely be separated from the flora of New Guinea. It is practically impossible to separate the Philippine-Celebesian, the Philippine-Moluccan, and the Philippine-Papuan alliances and, although the Celebes alliance has been separately considered, partly because of its prominence and partly because Celebes is the largest island south of the Philippines between New Guinea and Borneo, the general characters are the same for all.

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* Op. cit.

In the following list the various species mentioned occur also in the Philippines, as well as in the islands listed:

Phyllocladus, four species in New Zealand with one extending from northern Luzon to New Guinea (also in notheastern Borneo).

Gnetum gnemonoides Brongn., Moluccas and New Guinea.

Pandanus linnaei Gaudich., Celebes, Kei, and Aru.

Sararanga, a remarkable genus with one species in the Philippines and one in the Solomon Islands.

Vallisneria gigantea Graebn., New Guinea and tropical Australia.

Andropogon fragilis R. Br., New Guinea and Australia (also in southeastern China).

Andropogon sericeus R. Br., New Guinea, New Caledonia, and Australia.

Cladium falcatum C. B. Clarke, New Guinea.

Mapania macrocephala K. Schum., Moluccas to the Bismarck Archipelago.

Scleria purpureo-vaginata Boeck., Ceram Laut.

Thoracostachyum lucbanense Kük., Amboina.

Heterospathe, with five species, four in the Philippines, one of which extends to Amboina, one in New Guinea.

Aglaonema oblongifolium Kunth, Amboina and Banda.

Pothoidium lobbianum Schott (monotypic), Celebes and Ternate.

Pothos rumphii Schott, Celebes, Moluccas, and New Guinea.

Spathiphyllum commutatum Schott, Celebes and Amboina; all other species in tropical America.

Pollia macrophylla Benth., New Guinea, Solomon Islands, and Australia.

Dioscorea nummularia Lam., Celebes, Moluccas, and New Guinea.

Alpinia pubiflora K. Schum. and *A. pulchella* K. Schum., New Guinea.

Costus glabra Merr., Moluccas.

Monophrynium fasciculatum K. Schum., Halmahera; the genus otherwise Philippine only.

Casuarina rumphiana Miq., Celebes and Moluccas.

Piper decumanum Linn., Moluccas.

Piper fragile Benth., New Guinea.

Ascarina, two Philippine species; all others in New Caledonia, New Zealand, and Polynesia.

Gironniera celtidifolia Gaudich., Solomon Islands to Fiji.

Ficus conora King, Moluccas and New Guinea.

Ficus heteropoda Miq., Halmahera and Celebes.

Ficus philippinensis Miq., Celebes, Moluccas, New Guinea, and New Caledonia.

Pisonia longirostris T. and B., Buru and New Guinea.

Drimys piperita, northern Luzon to New Guinea (also in Borneo).

Papualthia, a genus with about twenty species confined to the Philippines and New Guinea.

Uvaria musaria DC., Moluccas.

Litsea perrottetii F.-Vill., Celebes and Moluccas.

Quintinia, one species in the Philippines; all others, about fifteen, in New Guinea, New Caledonia, New Zealand, and Australia.

Spiraeopsis, one Philippines-Celebes, several in New Guinea.
Clianthus binnendyckianus Kurz, Celebes and Ceram; all others Australian.
Dalbergia densa Benth., Moluccas to New Guinea.
Desmodium ormocarpoides DC., Celebes, Moluccas, New Guinea, and Australia.
Macropsychanthus, two species in the Philippines, one in New Guinea.
Ormosia calavensis Azaola, Moluccas and Palau.
Rhynchosia calosperma Warb., Buru, Kei, and New Guinea.
Murraya crenulata Oliv., New Caledonia and Australia.
Aglaia luzoniensis M. and R., Celebes to New Guinea (also in Borneo).
Aglaia multifoliola Merr., Amboina.
Croton verrauxii Muell.-Arg., New Guinea to Polynesia.
Macaranga hispida Muell.-Arg., Ceram and Amboina.
Mallotus papuanus J. J. Sm., New Guinea.
Koordersiodendron pinnatum Merr. (monotypic), Celebes to New Guinea (also in eastern Borneo).
Cubilia blancoi Blume (monotypic), Celebes and Moluccas.
Dictyoneura sphaerocarpa Radlk., New Guinea.
Euphorianthus, one Philippines-Celebes, the other two in the Moluccas, New Guinea, and New Caledonia.
Guioa glauca Radlk., New Caledonia.
Lepidopetalum perrottetii Blume, Kei and Timor Laut.
Tristira, two in the Philippines, one in Celebes, and one in the Moluccas.
Tristiropsis, ten species; Philippines to New Guinea and the Marianne Islands (one in Christmas Island, south of Java).
Alphitonia zizyphoides A. Gray, Moluccas to Polynesia (also in eastern Borneo).
Sterculia ceramica R. Br., Celebes, Halmahera, and Moluccas (also in Botel Tobago).
Schuurmansia, two species in the Philippines; all others in Celebes, Moluccas, and New Guinea.
Osmelia philippina F.-Vill., New Guinea.
Gyrinopsis brachyantha Merr., Moluccas.
Terminalia comintana Merr., Celebes (also in eastern Borneo).
Mooria (*Cloëzia*), one species in Mindanao; all others, five or six, in New Caledonia.
Eucalyptus deglupta Blume, Mindanao to Celebes, Moluccas, New Guinea, and the Bismarck Archipelago.
Mearnsia, one species in the Philippines, one in New Guinea, and one in New Caledonia.
Xanthostemon, three species in the Philippines; all others in Celebes, New Guinea, New Caledonia, and Australia.
Medinilla venosa Blume, Moluccas.
Medinilla teysmanni Miq., Moluccas.
Otanthera crinita Naud., Aru.
Anompanax, three species in the Philippines and several in Celebes and New Guinea.
Didiscus saniculaefolius Merr., Celebes and New Guinea (also in Borneo); all others in Australia.

Dimorphanthera, two species in the Philippines, one in Amboina, and about thirty in New Guinea.
Vaccinium microphyllum Blume, Moluccas.
Vaccinium myrtoides Miq., Celebes and Moluccas.
Loheria, two species in the Philippines and three in New Guinea.
Mimusops parvifolia R. Br., Moluccas, New Caledonia, and Australia.
Myxopyrum macrolobum A. W. Hill., Amboina and New Guinea.
Lepiniopsis ternatensis Val. (monotypic), Ternate and Amboina.
Rauwolfia amsoniaefolia A. DC., Timor Laut, Kei, and Tenimber Islands.
Callicarpa cumingiana Schauer, Celebes and Moluccas.
Clerodendron lanuginosum Blume, Banda, Ternate, and Ceram.
Clerodendron macrostegium Schauer, Ceram, Amboina, and Saparoea.
Striga masuria Benth., Moluccas and Australia.
Nycticalos cuspidatum Miq., Celebes and Moluccas.
Pseuderanthemum depauperatum Merr., Moluccas.
Antirrhoea hexasperma Merr., Moluccas.
Dolicholobium, all Polynesian except *D. philippinense* Trel. in the Philippines.
Hedyotis buruensis Val., Moluccas.
Nauclea undulata Roxb., Moluccas and New Guinea.
The whole section *Enantiophyllum* (ten species) of *Scaevola*, Celebes, Moluccas, New Guinea, and tropical Australia.

Thus, there are nearly forty genera, as well as a few sections of other genera, confined to the Philippines and the islands to the south and southeast but scarcely extending west of Wallace's Line. The genera are:

Phyllocladus (one species in Borneo).
Spiraeopsis.
Wallaceodendron.
Reinwardtiodendron.
Neotrewia.
Strophioblachia (also in Indo-China).
Gyrinopsis.
Acanthophora.
Couthovia.
Myrmephytum.
§ *Enantiophyllum* of *Scaevola*.
Sararanga.
Heterospathe.
Pothoidium.
Spathiphyllum (also tropical America).
Monophrynium.
Ascarina.
Drimys (also in Borneo).
Papualthia.
Quintinia.
Clianthus.
Spiraeopsis.
Macropsychanthus.
Koordersiodendron (also in Borneo).
Cubilia.
Euphorianthus.
Tristira.
Alphitonia (also in Borneo).
Schuurmansia.
Mooria (*Cloëzia*).
Eucalyptus.
Mearnsia.
Xanthostemon.
Anompanax.
Didiscus (also in Borneo).
Dimorphanthera.
Loheria.
Lepiniopsis.
Nycticalos.
Dolicholobium.

AUSTRALIA

The Australian element in the Philippine flora is so peculiar and so striking that it is well worthy of special note. By Australian element should be understood largely the genera and species characteristic of the more tropical parts of Australia, and chiefly northeastern Australia, that also occur in the Philippines. This element is very much stronger in the Philippines than in western Malaysia, but naturally not so strong as in New Guinea and, probably, in the Moluccas and Celebes. However, the Moluccan and Celebesian floras are so imperfectly known as contrasted with the Philippine flora that, as indicated by known distributions, the Australian elements are stronger in the Philippines than in Celebes and the Moluccas. These elements have unquestionably reached the Philippines through New Guinea, the Moluccas, and Celebes, and occur in the Archipelago at both low and high altitudes. Seven families largely developed in Australia find representatives in the Philippine flora; these are the Centrolepidaceae, Casuarinaceae, Halorrhagidaceae, Proteaceae, Stackhousiaceae, Epacridaceae, and Stylidiaceae, but this is perhaps of little significance. *Centrolepis* has one species in Borneo that is very closely allied to the Philippine species or possibly identical with it, one species in Indo-China, and one in New Guinea; the entire family is otherwise confined to Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand, with one small genus in the Cape Horn region and the Falkland Islands. The three Philippine representatives of the large and typically Australian genus *Casuarina* are also Malaysian, one very widely distributed, one in Celebes and the Moluccas, and one in western Malaysia. The Philippine representatives of the Proteaceae are all in the genus *Helicia,* which is spread over the entire Indo-Malaysian region. In the Halorrhagidaceae the genus *Halorrhagis,* with over sixty species, is confined to Australia, New Caledonia, and New Zealand except for four species that occur in the Philippines, of which two are endemic, one is found from Bengal to Japan, southward to New Zealand, but not in western Malaysia, and one is found in India, southeastern Asia, and Borneo. For many years the only representative of the Stackhousiaceae known outside of Australia was a Luzon form, but the same species or a closely allied one is now known from the Caroline Islands, Amboina, and Sumatra, and is probably scattered throughout Malaysia; it is a small plant, difficult to detect, and hence is very generally overlooked by collectors. In the Epacridaceae the one Philippine representative of the genus *Styphelia*, an endemic species, is allied to Malaysian forms. The Philippine representative of the Stylidiaceae, *Stylidium alsinoides* R. Br., is known only from Luzon, New Guinea, and Australia; the whole family is Australian, except three species of *Stylidium* that occur in Asia.

In addition to these typically Australian families there is a rather formidable list of typical Australian genera and species in other families, most of which are unknown from western Malaysia, and some even unknown from the islands between the Philippines and Australia, although all are certainly to be expected in Celebes, the Moluccas, and New Guinea. The following enumeration indicates how strong this element is, although in no case are species dominant, even locally, except *Eucalyptus* in favored localities in Mindanao. Except as otherwise indicated, the various species in the following list have been recorded only from the Philippines and Australia:

Andropogon baileyi Hack.

Andropogon fragile R. Br. (also in southern China and in New Guinea).

Andropogon sericeus R. Br. (also in New Guinea and New Caledonia).

Ischaemum arundinaceum F.-Muell.

Perotis rara R. Br.

Pollinia irritans Hack.

Cladium, largely an Australian genus, with eight species in the Philippines, including *C. riparia* Benth.

Schoenus, largely an Australian genus, with four species in the Philippines, including *S. axillaris* Poir.

Schoenus falcatus R. Br., and *S. melanostachys* R. Br. (also in Borneo).

Uncinia, with *U. rupestris* Raoul in the Philippines (Tasmania, New Zealand), the only representative of the genus north of Australia in the Old World.

Centrolepis philippinensis Merr., endemic, but the entire family largely Australian.

Thysanotus chinensis Benth., in Australia and northern Luzon (also in southern China and in the northen part of the Malay Peninsula), all other representatives of the genus Australian.

Patersonia lowii Stapf (also in Borneo), the entire genus confined to Australia except this and one other Bornean species.

Thelymitra, *Microtis*, *Adenochilus*, and *Corysanthis*, genera of orchids, all occur in the Philippines, and all are probably to be considered Australian types.

Aphananthe philippinensis Planch.

Phrygilanthus, one endemic species in the Philippines, the other Old World representatives in New Guinea, Australia, and New Zealand.

Ranunculus, two endemic species in Luzon, both clearly allied to Australian and New Zealand forms.

Drimys piperita Hook. f., throughout the Philippines, a characteristic Australian type (also in Borneo).

Drosera spathulata Labill. (Japan, southern China, Formosa, Borneo, New Zealand).

Citriobatus, one species in Java and Luzon, the others Australian.

Clianthus, one Philippine-Moluccan-Celebesian species, all others Australian.

Acacia confusa Merr. (in Luzon and Formosa), one of the few phyllodinous species known outside of Australia.

Murraya crenulata Oliver (also in New Caledonia).

Pleiogynium solanderi Engl. (monotypic; also in Vavau).

Stackhousia intermedia Bailey (Caroline Islands, Amboina, ? Sumatra; all other representatives of the family Australian).

Camptostemon, one species Philippine-Bornean, one Australian.

Eucalyptus deglupta Blume, Mindanao, Celebes, Moluccas, New Guinea, Bismark Archipelago but not in Australia; the genus, however, characteristic of Australia.

Pimelea, one species in Luzon, one in Timor, all others in Australia.

Osbornia octodonta F.-Muell. (monotypic; also in Borneo).

Tristania and *Leptospermum* are also largely Australian, but both widely distributed in Malaysia.

Xanthostemon, the Philippines, New Guinea, Celebes, and New Caledonia

Halorrhagis, largely Australian, but with four species in the Philippines, two endemic, one Japan to India south of New Zealand, and one India, Indo-China, China, and Borneo.

Didiscus saniculaefolius Merr., Mindoro, Borneo, Celebes, New Guinea, the genus otherwise Australian.

Ipomoea diversifolia R. Br.

Ipomoea polymorpha R. & S. (also in Formosa).

Buchnera urticifolia R. Br.

Calogyne pilosa R. Br. (monotypic; also in southeastern China).

Spilanthes grandiflora Turcz.

In various other genera there are individual species closely allied to Australian forms. The Philippine representatives in seven families and in over thirty genera must, I believe, from the extra-Philippine distribution of the individual species, be considered as Australian types. They at least indicate a line of migration from Australia to the north, which stopped practically at the northern end of Luzon; I have already indicated (p. 93) that the characteristic Australian, Moluccan, and Papuan elements in the Philippine flora do not reach Formosa (except *Acacia confusa* Merr. and *Ipomoea polymorpha* R. and S.) and are even weaker in southeastern Asia (*Calogyne pilosa* R. Br. occurs in southeastern China). This clearly indicates a long-continued separation of Luzon from Formosa and the Asiatic mainland (China). The following genera of orchids, all represented in the Philippines, are probably also to be considered as Australian types: *Adenochilus, Corysanthes, Cyrtostylis, Microtis,* and *Thelymitra.*

NEW CALEDONIA

New Caledonia is so far from the Philippines that indications of special botanic alliances, though few, are so distinct as to be worthy of special note. *Ascarina,* a small genus, is confined to New Caledonia, New Zealand, and Polynesia, with two species in the Philippines; *Guioa glauca* Radlk. is known only from Palawan and New Caledonia; *Quintinia* presents fifteen species in New Caledonia, New Zealand, Australia, and New Guinea and one in the Philippines. *Mooria* (*Cloëzia*) is the most striking case, with five or six species confined to New Caledonia; the only other known representative occurs in Mindanao. *Xanthostemon* has a number of species in New Caledonia, some in Australia, one in Celebes, and three in the Philippines. Among the Pteridophyta the very peculiar *Tmesipteris tannensis* Bernh. extends from northern Luzon to New Zealand and Polynesia through New Guinea and Australia, but does not extend to western Malaysia.

NEW ZEALAND

On account of the geographic location of New Zealand and its temperate and subtemperate climate, one would hardly expect to find many species common to New Zealand and the Philippines. *Halorrhagis micrantha* R. Br., *Gnaphalium japonicum* Thunb., and a few other species extend from India and Japan to New Zealand and occur in the Philippines. The two endemic Philippine species of *Ranunculus* are allied to Australian and New Zealand forms. The distribution of *Quintinia, Ascarina,* and *Tmesipteris* have been mentioned under New Caledonia. *Euphrasia borneensis* Stapf, which is found in Luzon and Borneo, is closely allied to New Zealand forms, and the same is true of *Gaultheria borneensis* Stapf, which also occurs in Borneo and Luzon. The two most striking cases are *Uncinia rupestris* Raoul, known only from the Philippines and New Zealand, and the very peculiar fern *Blechnum* (*Lomaria*) *fraseri* Luerss., which occurs on the higher mountains of the Philippines, in Borneo, and in New Zealand, and is unknown from intermediate points.

POLYNESIA

With Polynesia as a whole there are certain evident alliances, but these are wholly to be expected. Their significance, however, may be modified as a better knowledge is obtained of geographic distribution in Malaysia. Thus, *Vavaea* was long known only from Polynesia (Fiji, Tongatabu) and the Philippines, about seven species occurring in the Philippines, but it seems also to be widely distributed in Malaysia, at least in Java where *V. bantamensis* (Koord. and Val.) Koord. and Merr. occurs, while there are numerous unnamed specimens in the Buitenzorg herbarium distributed (unidentified) in other families than the Meliaceae. *Carex graeffeana* Boeck. is known only in the Philippines and Samoa; *Joinvillea* has one species extending from the Malay Peninsula through Borneo to Palawan and Sulu, all other representatives occurring in New Caledonia, New Hebrides, Samoa, Fiji, and Hawaii; *Aneilema vitiense* Seem. occurs in the Philippines and in Samoa and Fiji; *Gironniera celtidifolia* Gaudich. is recorded from the Philippines, Solomon Islands, and Fiji; *Ficus tinctoria* Forst. is widely distributed in the Philippines and in Polynesia; the Philippine species *Garuga littoralis* Merr. is at least very closely allied to a Samoan form; *Oncocarpus* has four species in the Philippines and one in Fiji; *Pleiogynum solanderi* Engl. (monotypic) occurs in Luzon, Australia, and Vavau; *Rhus taitensis* Guill. (sometimes treated as a variety of *R. simarubaefolia* A. Gray) occurs in the Philippines and in Fiji, Samoa, Tahiti, and Tongatabu; *Discocalyx* with more than twenty-five species in the Philippines has one common to Borneo and the Philippines, and a few in Polynesia and New Guinea; *Couthovia* has ten species in New Guinea, two in Fiji, and one in the Philippines and Celebes; *Dolicholobium* is wholly Polynesian except for one species in the Philippines, *Tetraplasandra* is a small Hawaiian genus, with one species in Celebes and one in Palawan.

FAUNISTIC RELATIONSHIPS OF THE PHILIPPINES

It seems worth while to compile such data as are available regarding the zoögeographic alliances of the Philippine fauna, with a view to determining whether or not these alliances are in agreement with the floristic ones. Naturally, it would be expected that the fauna and the flora would present the same general alliances, and this is the case. As with the flora, the fauna is distinctly more closely allied to that of western than to that of eastern Malaysia.

The indicated floristic and faunistic alliances, taken into consideration in conjunction with the geologic history of Malaysia as a whole point to certain logical conclusions regarding the origin and relationships of Philippine life forms; and a study of plant and animal distribution in the Philippines offers a clue to the explanation of the differences between the faunas of eastern and western Malaysia which is curiously in close harmony with the geologic history of Malaysia.

In considering faunistic alliances, however, one fact must be kept constantly in mind; namely, that before any considerable fauna can exist in a region the vegetation must be present. In other words, it must be assumed that in the case of the Philippines the flora developed antecedent to much of the fauna. Then, too, certain groups of animals developed at a relatively late date in geologic history, so that the evidence derived from different classes of animals is not of equal value. For example, the mammal distribution can be taken as a criterion only in or after the Cenozoic.

LAND MOLLUSKS

The literature covering the terrestrial Mollusca is so vast and the need of critical revision in many groups so great that it was impossible for me to compile any satisfactory data on the geographic distribution of the genera and species. I accordingly communicated with Dr. Paul Bartsch, of the United States National Museum, and the following quotations are from a letter received from him under date of March 14, 1924:

> The Philippine molluscan fauna contains a large indigenous element. The largest genus in the group, *Cochlostyla,* scarcely extends beyond the borders of the Archipelago. Most of the groups indicate a close relationship with Borneo and then southwestward—in other words, a western Malaysian element—and it is interesting to trace the extent to which ingressions have taken place. Some groups have scarcely covered the Balabac Strait region, other groups have covered Palawan, while still other groups have gone north into Mindoro, and some even into Luzon, and thence southward into the central part of the Archipelago.
>
> The second Bornean contact is, of course, through the Sibutu-Tawitawi-Jolo chain and this shows ingressions into Basilan, Mindanao, the central part of the Archipelago, and northward in some instances. It is my belief that most of the ingressions have come over these two routes.
>
> There is, however, also an element that is common to the Philippines and Celebes, the connection probably being through the Sangi Islands and Sarangani, between Celebes and southern Mindanao. However, fewer species are involved in this contact.
>
> Still another contact is to the southeast, probably again through Sarangani, but at all events extending to Gilolo. It is possible that these eastern elements may have been derived from the Philippines or from Celebes rather than that the migration took place in the opposite direction. I am rather inclined to believe that this has been the case.
>
> To the north there are very slight contacts with Formosa and Japan. A few species of the Batan Islands and northern Luzon have affinities with forms occurring in the islands north of the Philippine group, but they are

very few indeed and I am not at all sure but that they have been brought in by man or possibly by migratory birds. They are all, comparatively speaking, small forms.

We may state that the major portion of the Philippine land-shell fauna was developed in place; that most of the ingressions have come from the southwest and the south, through Borneo and through Celebes; and a very small element has come from the north. An equally small element may have migrated southeastward.

Among the land shells the indicated zoögeographic alliances of the Philippine fauna are with both western and eastern Malaysia, but definitely stronger with the former than with the latter region. The Asiatic element is negligible.

INSECTS

On account of the enormous development of insects in genera and in species and the rather imperfect knowledge of the geographic distribution of Malaysian insects it is hardly possible to draw general conclusions regarding the faunistic alliances from a study of this group alone, although the distribution data now available conform rather remarkably to the distribution of plants and of other groups of animals. An enormous amount of work remains to be done in the field and in the museum before the essential data on geographic distribution for most orders of insects will be available.

In the light of our present knowledge of Philippine and Malaysian insects and the geographic distribution of the various groups, we find that there are manifest alliances between the insect fauna of the Philippines and that of both eastern and western Malaysia. As in other groups of animals and the various groups of flowering plants and cryptogams, a definite Asiatic element is also found in the Philippines, especially in northern Luzon, which is apparently absent from Malaysia. In its insect fauna, as in other groups of both animals and plants, the Philippine Archipelago is characterized by a high percentage of endemism, thus indicating a long period of separation from surrounding regions.

With the insects, as with other groups of both animals and plants, the value of distribution data varies in the several orders. No attempt has here been made to cover the entire field, but a few major groups, on which recent intensive work has been accomplished, have been selected, some of which indicate close relationships with the islands to the south and southeast of the Philippines, others with the islands to the southwest, and still others present definite continental (Asiatic) types. In this group of organisms, probably more than in any other one here discussed, it seems to be evident that the distribution data of any one taxonomic subgroup, be it order, family, or genus, cannot be taken alone as showing the true zoögeographic relationships of the Philippine fauna.

In reference to the distribution of the Orthoptera in Malaysia Hebard * makes the following significant statement:

> We have found that Wallace's line separates quite as large a percentage of Tettigoniidae as of the Mantidae, clearly delimiting the Malayan from the Melanesian fauna.

An examination of his extensive paper on the orthopterous group Tettigoniidae shows that of the ninety-four genera considered thirty-five occur in the Philippines. Nine of these are endemic; thirteen are common to the Philippines and western Malaysia and do not occur in eastern Malaysia (Melanesia of Hebard); while four occur in the Philippines and eastern Malaysia but are unknown from western Malaysia. The geographic distribution of this particular group of insects is thus in striking conformity with the Philippine phytogeographic relationships with western and eastern Malaysia, being definitely much stronger with the former than with the latter.

The subfamily Tetriginae of the Acridiidae is another group of highly specialized orthopterous insects which is extraordinarily well represented in the Philippines. At present about ninety-eight genera and four hundred fifty species are known; of these, thirty-one genera and one hundred four species are listed as occurring in the Philippines, of which nine genera and ninety-seven species are endemic, only seven of the species occurring outside of the Archipelago. Of the seven forms that are also extra-Philippine, three occur in western Malaysia and one is otherwise recorded only from Celebes.

In the Blattidae (cockroaches), also considered one of the older groups of insects, the closest alliances of the Philippine forms are with those of the Moluccas, especially in certain very striking elements represented by the genus *Prosoplecta*. Of the known species eight are found in the Philippines, one in Celebes, three in Batchian and Ceram, and none in western Malaysia.†

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* Hebard, M., Studies in Malayan, Melanesian and Australian Tettigoniidae (Orthoptera), Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Philadelphia 74 (1922) 121-299 (p. 121).

† Shelford, R., Mimicry manifestations of the Blattidae; with a revision of the genus Prosoplecta Sauss., Proc. Zool. Soc. London (1902) 368.

In the Coleoptera the Curculionidae are represented in the Philippines by over six hundred known species. One of the outstanding features of the Philippine representatives of this group is the development of the large and peculiar subfamily Pachyrrhynchinae. Nine genera and two hundred thirty-four species of this subfamily are known from the Archipelago; all of the species and nearly all of the genera are endemic. This group, on account of its peculiar characters, has attracted the special attention of systematic entomologists for many years. The individual species are limited in their distribution; their coloration is very striking, as are also their mimetic relationships, not only with other representatives of the same group, but also with certain genera and species of entirely different families; the soft wings for flying are entirely absent, and the elytra have degenerated to such a degree that they are actually coherent along the suture and cannot be separated.

Of the nine genera occurring in the Philippines, eight are endemic and five of these are confined to Luzon. Four genera, represented by about thirty-three species, are known to occur outside of the Philippine Archipelago, in contrast with the two hundred thirty-four species known from the Philippines. The only extra-Philippine genera are *Pantorhytes,* which is represented by about twenty species in the Bismarck Archipelago and New Guinea; *Sphenomorpha,* with about nine species confined to the same general region as *Pantorhytes,* but also occurring in the Moluccas; *Pachyrrhynchus,* with about seventy-seven species, confined to the Philippines, except for four representatives occurring in Ternate, Sangi, and Morotai, and one in the Riu Kiu Islands; and the monotypic Bornean genus *Apocyrtidius,* the only known representative of the group in western Malaysia. In this particular group the faunistic alliances are overwhelmingly with eastern Malaysia, as clearly shown by the following tabulation:

Geographic distribution of the Pachyrrhynchinæ.

	Genera.	Species.
Philippines	9	234
Eastern Malaysia	4	32
Western Malaysia [a]	1	1
Riu Kiu Islands	1	1

[a] A single monotypic genus known only from Borneo.

As the Lepidoptera of the Philippines are better known than any other group of insects, geographic-distribution data in reference to this group are especially valuable. From present knowledge of Philippine Lepidoptera, certain definite conclusions can be drawn regarding the faunal relation among the various islands of the group, as well as with the surrounding regions. Semper's conclusions in reference to Philippine Lepidoptera are based on an actual examination of over fifty thousand specimens, including six hundred twelve species of butterflies and nine hundred seven species of moths.

As with most other groups of insects, we find in the Lepidoptera alliances with those of both eastern and western Malaysia. In connection with the Palawan fauna, Pagenstecher * states that the distribution of the true butterflies, after Staudinger, shows that we may accept Palawan as a bridge between Borneo and the Philippines. Of the two hundred eighty-three known Palawan species, about one hundred thirty are known in the Philippines and one hundred twenty in Borneo, while about sixty-five are common to the three regions. Pagenstecher also states that the geographic distribution of the Palawan moths conforms to the distribution of the butterflies, the Palawan moth fauna being a mixture of species from the large Sunda islands, especially Borneo, and from the Philippines, with a number of endemic species, the Bornean element predominating.

The lepidopterous fauna of the high mountains of northern Luzon also presents certain striking Asiatic types. Among these may be mentioned *Actias maenas* Doubleday, a very large moth that cannot fly great distances, which occurs otherwise in the mountains of India, Burma, and Siam; while another representative of the genus, *A. selene* Hübner, extends from India to China and is also found in Java; no representative of the genus is known from Borneo, Sumatra, or Celebes. Seven indigenous representatives of the genus *Agrotis* occur in northern Luzon; the genus is one of wide distribution in Europe, India, China, and Japan. *Papilio xuthus* Linnaeus is also indigenous in the mountains of northern Luzon, otherwise occurring from Persia to Siberia and Korea southward through Japan and China to Formosa. It seems, therefore, perfectly evident that certain elements in our insect fauna reached northern Luzon from Asia, probably at a time when definite land connections existed between Asia and Luzon by way of Formosa.

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* Pagenstecher, A., Die geographische Verbreitung der Schmetterlinge (1909).

In general, the Philippine insect fauna has the same series of alliances as have the flora and other elements of the fauna. In certain groups, the alliances are stronger with the islands to the south and southeast of the Archipelago, while in other groups the alliances are stronger with western Malaysia. In the mountains of northern Luzon there is a striking representation of Asiatic types of insects, corresponding to the rather striking floral elements and certain representatives of the avifauna. The insect distribution, in itself, indicates previous land connections to the north, probably through Formosa, but these must have been early; to the south and southeast with Celebes, the Moluccas, and New Guinea; and to the southwest, that is, with western Malaysia. I can see no reason for drawing other conclusions from the known geographic distribution of insects than can logically be drawn from the distribution of plants, or that of mammals, birds, reptiles, batrachians, and fresh-water fishes. As in the other groups, the data clearly show that Palawan and the Calamian Islands were long a part of Borneo after direct connection with the more eastern part of the Philippines was broken at the Mindoro Strait.

FRESH-WATER FISHES *

The exceptionally rich marine fish fauna of the Philippines is in general the same as that of the rest of the Malaysian region, although a few northern types extend southward from eastern Asia and the adjacent islands as far as the central Philippines. A study of the Philippine marine fauna in general throws little or no light on the special biological relationships with surrounding regions. In contrast to this, however, certain very positive conclusions may be drawn from a study of the fresh-water fishes of the region.

Many species of fishes are found in Philippine lakes and rivers. As in most insular regions, the great majority of them are marine or brackish-water species or species that spawn in salt water and spend only a part of their life in fresh water. Thus, under the first category may be mentioned the sharks, rays, swordfish, and various opichthyoid and muraeneid eels, which ascend some rivers more than 250 kilometers. Under the second group may be mentioned the mullets (Mugilidae), some

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* Data compiled from a paper by Albert W. C. T. Herre, chief of the division of fisheries, Bureau of Science, on the distribution of true fresh-water fishes in the Philippines: I. The Philippine Cyprinidæ, Philip. Journ. Sci. 24 (1924) 249–307, *t. 1 12.*

snappers (Lutianidae), certain eels (Anguillidae), the milkfish (*Chanos*), some pompanos (Carangidae), the ten-pounder, *Megalops,* some Holocentridae, many Apogonichthyidae, some Teraponidae, the Kuhliidae, *Scatophagus argus* (Gmelin), some pipefishes (Syngnathidae), and many gobies. Some of these fishes ascend rivers only a short distance, but others, such as the eels, mullets, and gobies, ascend to the most remote headwaters of the longest rivers in Luzon and Mindanao, more than 300 kilometers from the sea. All, however, return to the ocean when spawning time approaches. None of these is considered in the following discussion, as it is perfectly manifest that they are primarily salt-water fishes.

In the Philippines certain fishes live exclusively in fresh water. Some halfbeaks, near relatives of the flying fishes, spend their entire lives in fresh water. In most streams also are found certain gobies that do not go down to the sea. Since, however, the affinities of the fresh-water halfbeaks and the fresh-water gobies are with salt-water forms, they may be regarded as recent immigrants in fresh water and may be dismissed from consideration in reference to problems of geographic distribution outside of the Archipelago. The catfishes, although primarily a fresh-water group, include some representatives that have become adapted to life in either brackish or salt water, or to living indifferently in fresh or in salt water. These, like the halfbeaks and gobies mentioned above, may be eliminated.

The exclusively fresh-water fishes of the Archipelago are limited to two groups of catfishes, the Clariidae and the Siluridae, each represented by two species; the mudfishes (Ophicephalidae) with perhaps two species; the climbing perch, *Anabas testudineus* (Bloch); the Osphromenidae with one species; and the carp family, Cyprinidae, with seven genera and about twenty-eight species. The Clariidae, mudfishes, and climbing perch are of very doubtful utility in the study of geographic distribution, as, being of considerable economic value as a source of food and being tenacious of life, they have been purposely distributed within the Philippines by both the Christian and the pagan Filipinos.

The single Philippine representative of the Osphromenidae is known only from Cagayan Sulu Island; elsewhere it occurs from Borneo and Bali to Java and Siam. Cagayan Sulu lies at the outer edge of the Bornean shelf, and the presence of this fish in a small fresh-water lake on Cagayan Sulu indicates that at one time this island was an integral part of Borneo.

The Cyprinidae remain to be considered. The geographic distribution of the group in Malaysia confirms to a remarkable degree the conclusions reached by a study of the geographic distribution of plants and other groups of animals. There are approximately thirty-two genera and one hundred eight species of this family known from Borneo, in contrast to the seven genera and twenty-nine indigenous Philippine species so far known. Two of the Philippine species are common to Mindanao, Borneo, and Palawan; one is known from southeastern Mindanao and Borneo; one from the Palawan-Calamian group and Borneo; one species is confined to Mindoro; one to Busuanga; one to Palawan, Balabac, and Busuanga; three to Palawan; and thirteen to Lake Lanao in Mindanao. In the Philippines, no representative of the group is known from the Visayan Islands, Leyte, Bohol, Cebu, Negros, Samar, Panay, or Luzon. One is thus forced to the conclusion that in the north there has been no land connection between Mindoro and Luzon, at least since the Cyprinidae reached northern Mindoro. The Balabac-Palawan-Calamian group presents very manifest Bornean alliances and, in addition, at least one species occurs in Mindoro. This species no doubt became established there before the formation of the Mindoro Strait. In Mindanao, the cyprinoid fishes abound throughout the island at both low and high altitudes. In Lake Lanao, situated at an altitude of 670 meters above the sea, and separated from the sea by the impassable barrier of the Maria Cristina Falls, thirteen species of Cyprinidae are found, three of the genera and all of the species being known only from this lake. It is probable that the ancestors of the Mindanao Cyprinidae entered from Borneo via the Sulu land bridge.

The presence of seven genera and twenty-nine species of strictly fresh-water Cyprinidae in the Philippines and within the Archipelago confined to Mindanao to the south and to Mindoro, the Calamian Islands, Palawan, and presumably Balabac to the north, is very significant in reference to the geographic distribution of this group in Malaysia as a whole. The family is highly developed in western Malaysia, no less than one hundred eight species in thirty-two genera being known from Borneo alone. In contrast to this, but a single species of the family is found in eastern Malaysia and there only in Lombok and Sumbawa. The Lombok form was described by Weber as a distinct species, *Rasbora lombokensis* (in MS); was later reduced by him to *R. elberti* Popta, the description of which was also based on Lombok material; and still later * both were reduced to the widely distributed *R. lateristriata* (Bleeker), which is recorded from Sumatra, Borneo, Java, Bunguran, Sumbawa, and Lombok. No representative of the family is known from Celebes, and nowhere east of Borneo except in the Philippines, which is in striking verification of the theory that there has been no direct connection between Celebes and Borneo within recent geologic times. That a single species by some means extended its range to Lombok and Sumbawa, which are at the extreme southern end of Wallace's Line, is utterly insignificant in reference to the validity of Wallace's Line as a zoögeographic boundary, when the enormous development of the group in western Malaysia is taken into consideration. Outside of the single representative widespread western Malaysian species that occurs in Lombok and Sumbawa, the group is entirely absent from eastern Malaysia.

Northern types of fresh-water fishes are entirely absent from the Philippines. A species of trout, for example, occurs in the highlands of Formosa, but the group is not represented in streams at similar altitudes in northern Luzon where the conditions approximate those of Formosa. This in itself corroborates the claim that the Formosan rift between Formosa and the Batan Islands is, geologically speaking, ancient. An examination of the list of fresh-water fishes of Formosa shows that there are no relations between them and the fresh-water fishes of the Philippines and of Malaysia. Exclusive of the artificially introduced forms and those that are wholly or partly marine or brackish-water forms, 61 per cent of the true fresh-water fishes of Formosa are endemic. The nearest relatives of these endemic species are found in China, Korea, and Japan, and the genera to which they belong have their largest representation in British India, Indo-China, and China. Therefore, the fresh-water fish fauna, including both the endemic and the widespread species, shows a close relationship to the neighboring continental forms. Eleven species are more or less widely distributed from Korea and Japan to southern China; one occurs otherwise only on the Chinese mainland, and one only in Japan. Seven species present more southerly alliances, occurring from southern China to Indo-China. Of the species not peculiar to Formosa, we find that 80 per cent occur on the Chinese mainland. It would seem otherwise that the fresh-water streams of Formosa were first occupied by fishes from the streams of China, but at a time sufficiently remote to permit the development of local forms. There probably was a later migration of those species with southern affinities through southern China, these being unaltered from the continental forms. In this connection, it is significant that Formosa lies entirely on the Asiatic continental shelf.

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* Weber, M., and L. F. de Beaufort, The Fishes of the Indo-Australian Archipelago 3 (1916) 76.

A single species of fresh-water fish is recorded from both the Philippines and Formosa, and this one species is also found in southern China; there is, therefore, no reason to believe that it reached Formosa from Luzon. Northern types of fresh-water fishes are entirely absent from the Philippines, and Philippine species of fresh-water fishes must be considered as having been wholly derived from western Malaysia via Borneo.

AMPHIBIANS AND REPTILES

An examination of the series of monographs on the herpetology of the Philippines, recently written by Taylor,* and of Barbour's extensive publication on the zoögeography of Malaysia † shows that, to a remarkable degree, the geographic distribution of the lizards, snakes, and amphibians of the Philippines conforms to the floristic relationships between the Philippines and eastern and western Malaysia. I am personally of the opinion, however, that the reptiles are perhaps slightly less limited in their geographic distribution by salt-water barriers than are large mammals, the fresh-water fishes, and certain groups of birds, some of them being infinitely better adapted to fortuitous distribution on drift, etc. The batrachians, however, are very strictly limited; because, although adapted to marsh or land life, they cannot live in salt water.

Of the fifteen genera of amphibians occurring in the Philippines, *Phrynixalus, Chaperina,* and *Cornufer* are otherwise known only from the Moluccas, Halmahera, New Guinea, and neighboring islands, although single representatives of the last two are also known to occur in Borneo. Eleven genera, which are for the most part Asiatic and western Malaysian in distribution, have almost certainly entered the Philippines from Borneo through the Sulu and Palawan groups.

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* Taylor, E. H., Amphibians and Turtles of the Philippine Islands, Bur. Sci. Publ. 15 (1921) 1–193, *t. 1–17, f. 1–9* [reprinted with slight changes from Philip. Journ. Sci. 16 (1920) 111–144; 213–359]; The Snakes of the Philippine Islands, Bur. Sci. Publ. 16 (1922) 1–312, *t. 1–37, f. 1–32;* The Lizards of the Philippine Islands, Bur. Sci. Publ. 17 (1922) 1–269, *t. 1–23, f. 1–53.*

† Barbour, T., A contribution to the zoögeography of the East Indian Islands, Mem. Mus. Comp. Zool. Harvard Univ. 44 (1912) 1–203, *t. 1–8.*

The western Malaysian alliances of the Philippine amphibian fauna is clearly indicated by the following genera: *Megalophrys* is represented by three species in the Philippines, one of which occurs also in Burma, the Malay Peninsula, Sumatra, Borneo, and Java; there are seventeen known species of this genus, all confined to Asia and western Malaysia, except the three that occur in the Philippines. *Kalophrynus* is known from Burma to China, Sumatra, and Borneo, with two species in the Philippines; there is no species in eastern Malaysia. *Nectophryne* occurs in Africa and India, with eight species in Borneo, one of which occurs also in Singapore and the Natuna Islands; there are three species in the Philippines, but none is known from eastern Malaysia. *Staurois,* with four known species, has one representative in the Philippines and three in Borneo, one of the latter extending to the Malay Peninsula. In the genus *Rana, R. palavensis* Boulenger is found in Borneo, Palawan, and Celebes; *R. erythraea* (Schlegel) in southeastern Asia, Java, Borneo, Philippines, and Celebes; and *R. glandulosa* Boulenger in the Malay Peninsula, Borneo, and Palawan; the genus extends to New Guinea and Queensland, but there are many more species in western than in eastern Malaysia. With a similar distribution to that of the first two species of *Rana* above mentioned, we find also *Oxyglossus laevis* Günther extending from Burma through the Malay Peninsula to Sumatra, Borneo, and the Philippines. There are only two known species of the genus; the other extends from India to China and Java. *Ichthyophis* has two species in the Philippines and two in Asia, Sumatra, Java, and Borneo. *Philautus* extends from India to Sumatra, Java, and Borneo, with a number of endemic species in the Philippines, but none is known from eastern Malaysia. *Polypedates* presents numerous species in western Malaysia; a few occur in eastern Malaysia, six in the Philippines, as well as others in Formosa, the Riu Kiu Islands, Japan, and China. The genus *Bufo* presents about twenty species in western Malaysia, and only two or three extend as far east as Celebes; there are four in the Philippines which are most nearly related to those of Borneo.

The special alliances with eastern Malaysia are practically limited to the three genera *Phrynixalus, Chaperina,* and *Cornufer,* mentioned above. The general alliances of the Philippine amphibians are hence overwhelmingly with western Malaysia and in remarkably close conformity with the Malaysian-Philippine distribution of fresh-water fishes, and with the generic distribution of plants in the same regions. The amphibians very clearly present evidence of longer-continued or more-pronounced connections between the Philippines and western Malaysia than between the Philippines and eastern Malaysia, as do the fresh-water fishes, the Dipterocarpaceae, and the genera of all families of flowering plants as a whole, the birds, and the mammals.

Among the snakes, the alliances of the Philippine fauna are apparently more pronounced with western than with eastern Malaysia. Thus, the small genus *Hemibungarus* is confined to India and to the islands north of the Philippines, with three endemic Philippine species. *Boiga cynodon* (Boie) extends from Burma to Sumatra, Borneo, and the Philippines. *Gonyosoma oxycephalum* (Boie) extends from Tenasserim to the Natuna Islands, Borneo, and the Philippines. The genus *Holarchus* extends from southern Asia through the Malay Peninsula to Sumatra, Java, and Borneo, with four species in the Philippines, but only one in eastern Malaysia (Timor Laut and Dammer Island). The genus *Dryocalamus*, with three known species, has one in the Malay Peninsula and Sumatra, one in Borneo and the Natuna Islands, one in Palawan, and one in Basilan. *Zaocys* presents two species in western Malaysia, one of which extends to Palawan; there is another endemic species in Luzon, but none is found in eastern Malaysia. The genus *Haplopeltura*, with one species only, occurs in the Malay Peninsula, Java, Borneo, and the Philippines. *Natrix chrysarga* (Schlegel) extends from India through the Malay Peninsula, Java, Sumatra, and Borneo to Palawan and the Calamian group. The large genus *Calamaria*, with over forty species in Malaysia and eight in the Philippines, is overwhelmingly of western Malaysian distribution, the eight species extending to eastern Malaysia not occurring east of Celebes. The small genera *Bungarus* and *Naja*, in so far as their representatives in Malaysia are concerned, are western Malaysian and Philippine, one of each extending to Celebes. *Trimeresurus*, with seven Philippine species, is otherwise largely western Malaysian, only two species being recorded from eastern Malaysia and there limited to Celebes and Djampea. The genus *Sibynophis* is represented by a single species in the Palawan-Calamian group; there are representatives in southern Asia, the Comoro Islands, and Madagascar, and one extends through the Malay Archipelago to Flores. *Xenopeltis unicolor* Reinw. extends from India to Sumatra, Java, Borneo, and Celebes, and occurs in the Sulu Archipelago and Palawan. *Oligodon,* with four Philippine species, is otherwise largely western Malaysian, with six species in western and only two in eastern Malaysia (Celebes).

The indicated relationships between the Philippines and eastern Malaysia, so far as the snakes are concerned, are presented by *Elaphe erythrura* (Duméril and Bibron), which is widely distributed in the Philippines and occurs also in Celebes, but the genus is much more characteristic of western than of eastern Malaysia. The genus *Dendrelaphis* is represented by *D. modestus* Boulenger in the Philippines, Ternate, Halmahera, and Batjan, and *D. terrificus* (Peters) in the Philippines and Celebes, but the genus is both eastern and western Malaysian. *Stegonotus* is represented by only two species in the Philippines, all other representatives of the genus being confined to the Moluccas, New Guinea, and Australia, with none in western Malaysia. Here, again, as with the amphibians, the indicated alliances are overwhelmingly with western Malaysia.

Among the lizards, twenty-eight genera are known from the Philippines, about thirty from Borneo, and about twenty-five from the Celebes-Moluccas group. Twenty-one genera are common to Borneo and the Philippines; but all but two of these are also found in the Celebes-Moluccas group. Two genera, *Otosaurus* and *Hydrosaurus,* are confined to the Philippines and eastern Malaysia. The genus *Perochirus* is known only from Mindanao, Caroline Islands, and New Hebrides. *Emoia,* with three species in the Philippines, has sixteen in Malaysia, all eastern Malaysian but one. *Leiolopisma,* with three Philippine species, presents twenty-five in Malaysia, all eastern Malaysian but five. The genus *Varanus,* with five species in the Philippines, is for the most part eastern Malaysian, but presents four species in western Malaysia. Further alliances with eastern Malaysia are indicated by *Lepidodactylus woodfordi* Boulenger, Philippines, New Guinea, and Solomon Islands; *Draco reticulatus* Günther, Philippines, Sangi, Celebes, Timor, Sumba, Flores, and Lombok; *Tropidophorus grayi* Günther, Philippines and Celebes; *Siaphos infralineolatum* (Günther), Mindanao, Sulu, Sangi, and Celebes; *Sphenomorphus variegatus* (Peters), Philippines, Celebes, New Guinea, and Bismarck Archipelago (also Borneo); and *S. fasciatus* (Gray), Philippines and Celebes. The genus presents sixteen species in the Philippines and thirty-five in Malaysia, only seven of which are recorded from western Malaysia.

The genus *Gonyocephalus*, with nineteen species in western Malaysia and four in the Philippines, is unrecorded from eastern Malaysia; *Lygosoma chalcides* Cantor occurs in southeastern Asia, Siam, Malay Peninsula, Java, and the Palawan-Calamian group; *Varanus rudicollis* Boulenger is found in the Malay Peninsula, Borneo, and the Philippines; *Mabuya multicarinata* (Gray), in Borneo and the Philippines (also Celebes); *Riopa bowringii* (Günther), extends from southern China and Burma to the Malay Peninsula, Java, Borneo, Philippines, and Celebes; and *Siaphos quadrivittatum* (Peters) is known from the Malay Peninsula, Borneo, Mindanao, and Celebes. The special alliances are apparently stronger in this group between the Philippines and eastern Malaysia than between the Philippines and western Malaysia.

In general, then, the herpetological fauna of the Philippines, like the mammalian fauna and the avifauna, presents certain definite alliances with the faunas of both eastern and western Malaysia, corresponding to the similar floristic alliances, thus strengthening the general conclusions that I have drawn (see pp. 151 to 154), regarding the mixed origin of the Philippine flora and the reasons therefor. In the case of the amphibians and the snakes the indicated Philippine-Malaysian alliances are overwhelmingly with western Malaysia; in the case of the lizards the indicated alliances are much stronger with eastern than with western Malaysia. However, as Doctor Barbour has indicated to me, it is here entirely possible that ocean drift has come into play. The very types that have the largest and most erratic distribution are the forms most often carried about fortuitously. Gekkos and skinks have followed the migrations of human beings over the globe beyond any other group of organisms except certain groups of insects, parasitic and otherwise, and certain rodents.

In drawing conclusions as to possible previous land connections, although much weight may be given to the amphibians on account of their biological characters, it is doubtful if great weight should be given to the snakes and the lizards because they are distinctly adapted for dissemination by fortuitous circumstances, especially by rafts. From the representatives of the reptiles and the batrachians and their distribution within the Philippines and in the surrounding regions, it is evident that there was an early migration into the Archipelago, overwhelmingly of western Malaysian origin; this migration came largely over the Sulu and Palawan bridges from Borneo. The Palawan and Sulu reptilian and batrachian faunas, which are very strikingly Bornean in character, indicate a later migration into those regions when they were still connected with Borneo but after the connections with the Philippines proper were broken. There was likewise an intermigration of Philippine and eastern Malaysian types through the Mindanao-Celebes and Moluccan bridges.

BIRDS

This discussion of the geographic alliances of the Philippine avifauna is contributed by Mr. R. C. McGregor, ornithologist, Bureau of Science.

There are approximately two hundred ninety-two genera and seven hundred sixty species of birds known from the Philippines, including both resident and migratory forms. About one hundred twenty of the species are shore or water birds; a few of these, *Hypotaenidia torquata* (Linn.), *Rallina eurizonoides* (Lafr.), *Prozana ocularis* Ingram, *Porphyrio pulverulentus* Temm., *Micranous worcesteri* McGregor, *Ixobrychus astrologus* Wetmore, and *Anas luzonica* Fraser, are endemic. None of the shore or water birds will be considered further in this discussion, because most of them are migratory or range over very large areas.

Among Philippine land birds endemism is high, being about 12 per cent for the genera and about 73 per cent for the species. The high specific endemism results from the existence of numerous local species that have been developed in both endemic and nonendemic genera. Most of the local species are confined to single islands or groups of islands, so that in many cases it would be possible to tell from what part of the Philippines a given collection came, without referring to the locality tags on the specimens. This condition is found in *Prioniturus, Loriculus, Orthothomus, Dicaeum, Oriolus,* and many other genera.

Of the twenty-five endemic genera the most important in some respects is *Sarcophanops,* a genus of broadbills, which is represented by two species, one in Samar and Leyte, the other in Mindanao and Basilan. This is the most western genus of the order Eurylaemiformes, which otherwise consists of six genera with species in India, the Malay Peninsula, Ceylon, Java, Sumatra, and Borneo. In addition to *Sarcophanops,* which shows a strong western Malaysian alliance, there are twenty genera common to the Philippines and western Malaysia, which have no representatives in eastern Malaysia, being confined to Wallace's Oriental Region. They are briefly discussed below.

Gallus contains four species of wild chickens, or jungle fowls. *Gallus gallus* (Linn.), the typical species, ranges from India and the Malay Peninsula to the Indo-Malayan Islands.

Polyplectron consists of six species of peacock pheasants. One of these is confined to Palawan.

Treron is a genus of small doves and is closely allied to *Osmotreron.* There are two species. One of these is known from Palawan, Mindoro, and most parts of western Malaysia.

Anthracoceros contains five species of black hornbills, one of which is confined to Tawitawi and Sulu.

Xantholaema, a genus of small barbets, is represented in the Philippines by two species. One is endemic, the other is widely distributed in western Malaysia.

Tiga, a genus of three-toed woodpeckers, has but one Philippine species, which is confined to Palawan. There are three other species in western Malaysia.

Chrysocolaptes is a genus of medium-sized mottled woodpeckers and contains ten species, half of which are endemic Philippine species.

Mulleripicus pulverulentus (Temm.) is a large woodpecker of wide distribution in western Malaysia. It reaches the Philippines in Balabac and Palawan only. The genus is monotypic.

Aegithina viridis (Bp.), the black-winged iora, is known from Sumatra, Borneo, and Palawan. There are four other species in various parts of India and the Indo-Malayan Islands.

Chloropsis, a genus of leafbirds, has two Philippine species. One of these nearly uniform grass-green birds is found in Balabac and Palawan, the other in Cebu and Mindanao. There are four other species.

Irena, a genus of fairy bluebirds, is a characteristic western Malaysian genus. Four of the eight species are endemic to the Philippines.

Poliolophus, a genus of wattled bulbuls, has one species in the Philippines and one in Borneo.

Microtarsus contains seven species of small bulbuls, one of which extends from the Malay Peninsula and Burma through Sumatra, Java, and Borneo to Palawan.

Anuropsis, a genus of wood babblers, has but two species. One is found in the Malay Peninsula, Sumatra, and Borneo; the other is confined to Balabac and Palawan.

Mixornis, a genus of tit babblers, contains twelve species; one is confined to Balabac and Palawan, another to Cagayan Sulu.

Macronous, a genus of tit babblers, contains four endemic Philippine species and one species which ranges from the Malay Peninsula to Sumatra and Borneo.

Brachypteryx, a genus of shortwings, has species in India, Java, Sumatra, and Borneo and four endemic Philippine species.

Chaimarrornis contains two species of redstarts. One is found in the Himalayas and Burma, the other in northern Luzon.

Kittacincla contains about thirteen species of shamas, of which four are endemic to the Philippines.

Reichenowia, a genus of bamboo weavers, has one species in Java, one in Borneo, and one in the Philippines.

There are other Philippine genera that are most highly developed in western Malaysia; for example, *Eulabes* has one species in the Palawan group and nine in Ceylon, India, Burma, Java, etc. However, the genus is not included in the above list because one species is confined to Flores and Sumbawa. *Polyplectron, Tiga, Mulleripicus, Aegithina, Microtarsus, Anuropsis,* and *Mixornis* are represented in the Palawan-Calamian group but not in the more eastern Philippines.

Ten genera are common to the Philippines and eastern Malaysia, but have no representatives in western Malaysia. They are briefly discussed below.

Lamprotreron contains but two species of small bright-colored doves, both of which are eastern Malaysian with one record from Sulu for *L. temmincki.*

Zonophaps contains nine species of band-tailed pigeons, seven of which are eastern Malaysian and two are endemic Philippine species.

Gallicolumba (*Phlegoenas*) contains the five endemic Philippine ground doves known as blood-breasted doves, or puñaladas. The other twenty species of the genus are scattered through eastern Malaysia and Polynesia.

Trichoglossus contains about sixteen species of small parrots known as lories, one of which is confined to Mindanao. Most of the others are eastern Malaysian and Polynesian, with a few in the Australian Subregion. The family Loriidae as a whole is characteristic of eastern Malaysia and Australia.

Cacatua contains sixteen species of cockatoos that are found in various parts of eastern Malaysia and one species that is found in all parts of the Philippines except the Babuyan and Batan Islands. The family Cacatuidae as a whole is characteristic of eastern Malaysia and Australia.

Prioniturus contains ten or eleven species of racket-tailed parrakeets. Three of these are confined to Celebes and small neighboring islands, the others are endemic Philippine species.

Lichtensteinipicus contains but four species, large slate-colored woodpeckers; two are Celebesian and two are Philippine.

Xeocephus contains but four species, conspicuous long-tailed flycatchers; three are Philippine and one is found in Talaut Island.

Edolisoma, a genus of cuckoo shrikes, is characteristic of eastern Malaysia and Australia, but six of the thirty-six species are known only from the Philippines.

Eudrepanis, a genus of sunbirds, has three species in the Philippines and another species in Sangi Island.

There are other characteristic eastern Malaysian genera that are found throughout the Philippines; for example, *Megapodius,* a genus of mound builders, and *Tanygnathus,* a genus of green parrots. However, these are not included in the above list because they are represented by a few species in western Malaysia.

In addition to the western Malaysian elements in the Philippine avifauna the representatives of the genera *Sphenocercus, Hypsipetes, Chaimarrornis, Tribura, Alauda, Loxia,* and *Pyrrhula* indicate a continental (Asiatic) alliance, and were probably derived from the north and northwest, as these genera are not represented in Java, Sumatra, or Borneo.

Sphenocercus is a genus of green forest doves containing nine species. One of these is found only in Calayan and Batan and is closely related to a Formosan species. In Luzon and the more southern islands *Sphenocercus* is replaced by *Osmotreron.*

Iole is a genus of fruit thrushes represented in many parts of western Malaysia. Nine of the sixteen species are Philippine and are usually abundant wherever they occur. They are found in most of the Islands, but are replaced by *Hypsipetes* in the Babuyan and the Batan Islands. The latter genus has species in India, Ceylon, Hainan, and the Nicobars, but the Philippine species were probably derived from the stock now represented by species in Formosa, Japan, and the Bonin and Riu Kiu Islands.

Chaimarrornis, a genus closely allied to *Ruticilla*, the redstarts, has but two species. One is found in the Himalayas, Burma, and western China; the other is confined to northern Luzon.

Tribura is a genus of small obscure grass warblers most of the species of which inhabit the Himalayas, Siberia, Burma, and China. There is one species in tropical Africa and one species in northern Luzon.

Alauda contains about a dozen species. Some are of wide distribution in parts of Asia; others occur in Japan, Formosa, and Hainan. The one Philippine species, the Formosan skylark, is also recorded from Cochin-China, Formosa, and the Pescadores. No species is known from Sumatra, Java, or Borneo.

Loxia contains about twenty species of crossbills that inhabit pine forests in both the Old and the New World. One species is restricted to the pine forests of northern Luzon. Its nearest relative is found in the Himalayas.

Pyrrhula has about twenty species of bullfinches in various parts of Europe and Asia. One is confined to the Malay Peninsula, one to Japan, one to Formosa, one to northern Luzon, and one to Mindanao.

The avifauna of the Philippines is in general similar to that of Malaysia. It is manifest that some northern types have reached the Archipelago from Asia, as the genera common to Asia and the Philippines (chiefly Luzon) are otherwise unknown from Malaysia. The Palawan avifauna presents conspicuous western Malaysian types that are absent from the Philippines proper, and their presence there is doubtless to be explained as indicated on page 127. The eastern Malaysian alliances, while conspicuous, are not as strong as are these with western Malaysia. The avifauna thus presents the same series of alliances as does the flora, with Asia for northern types and with both western and eastern Malaysia, but, as with the flora, definitely stronger with western than with eastern Malaysia. The avifauna in its geographic relationships is thus in close conformity not only with the flora, but also with the mammals, the reptiles, the batrachians, and the fresh-water fishes.

MAMMALS

Among the mammals the horse, cattle, carabao, sheep, and goat, and domestic cat and dog have been introduced into the

Archipelago by man. The largest indigenous (and endemic) mammal found in the Philippines is the timarau, *Bubalus mindorensis* Heude, which is confined to Mindoro, and which apparently finds its closest ally in Borneo, being, according to Doctor Hollister, strictly congeneric with a form found in Sarawak; the *Anoa* of Celebes, which has been claimed by some authorities to be closely allied to the Mindoro species, belongs in a separate genus. Other Philippine mammals are the following: A fairly large number of shrews; one flying lemur; numerous bats; two so-called skunks, *Mydaus;* one clawless otter, *Aonyx;* one civet; three palm civets; one binturong; one cat (other than the domestic cat); a few squirrels; three flying squirrels; numerous rats and mice in various genera; one porcupine; one pangolin, or scaly anteater; two slow lemurs; three tarsiers; a few monkeys; several pigs; one mouse deer; several deer; and the dugong.*

While our knowledge of Philippine mammals is incomplete, certain alliances are evident. The pigs, *Sus;* deer, *Rusa;* monkeys, *Macacus;* tarsiers, *Tarsius;* various genera of rodents, *Rattus, Apomys, Phloeomys,* etc.; some squirrels, *Sciurus;* cat, *Felis;* civet, *Viverra;* flying lemur, *Cynocephalus;* and some shrews, *Pachyura, Crocidura,* etc., doubtless reached the Philippines when land connections were continuous with what is now Borneo, these types in general being of wide Malaysian distribution, although some representatives in certain genera may have come from Celebes.

There was unquestionably a later migration of Bornean and western Malaysian types into Balabac, Palawan, and the Calamian Islands, and into the Sulu Archipelago, as indicated by the following list: The mouse deer, *Tragulus,* occurs in the Philippines only in Balabac; the pangolin, or scaly anteater, *Manis,* only in Palawan and Culion; the slow porcupine, *Thecurus,* only in the Calamian Islands, Palawan, and Balabac; at least half of the few Philippine squirrels, *Sciurus* and *Nannosciurus,* only in Palawan, Culion, the Sulu Archipelago, and Basilan; the mongooses, *Mungos,* only in Palawan and Culion; the binturong, *Arctictis,* only in Palawan; the weasel, *Mustela,* only in Palawan and Sulu; the clawless otter, *Aonyx,* only in Palawan; and the so-called skunks, *Mydaus,* only in Balabac, Palawan, and the Calamian Islands. There are then two distinct series of western Malaysian types that extend into the Philippines, one an early migration when land connections were continuous between Borneo and the Philippines proper, and a prominent later migration through Borneo and Palawan only as far north as the Calamian Islands and as far as Basilan and possibly the Zamboanga Peninsula to the south, indicating that at the time of this migration the Philippines proper were separated from the Calamian-Palawan and the Sulu groups.

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* Hollister, N., A list of the mammals of the Philippine Islands, exclusive of the Cetaceae, Philip. Journ. Sci. § D 7 (1912) 1–64.

The alliances with eastern Malaysia are chiefly shown in an interesting series of rodents collected by John Whitehead on Mount Data, northern Luzon, and studied by Thomas.* Regarding Whitehead's material Thomas writes:

> What are the true affinities of the isolated fauna of Luzon is a question that is not easy to answer, for the representative forms are mostly so peculiar as to render their zoological relationships more or less doubtful. On the whole, the connections, such as they are, seem to be partly with Celebes and partly with the Australian region. Thus *Rhynchomys* seems to have its nearest ally (*Echiothrix*) in Celebes; *Mus chrysocomus* is actually a Celebean species; while *Chrotomys*, *Celaenomys*, and *Grynomys* belong to a subfamily, the *Hydromyinæ*, hitherto known only from Australia and New Guinea. Finally, *Crateromys* seems to have its nearest ally in *Lenomys* from Celebes, and in another new genus not yet described that occurs in New Guinea.

Doctor Hollister informs me that in working up the large mammal collection recently made by Raven in Celebes he was constantly impressed with the relationships in many groups with Philippine species. Thus, two of the six species of small shrews, *Crocidura*, found in Celebes, the genus hitherto not known from that island, are close to Mindanao forms, while the bat genus *Harpyionycteris*, hitherto known by a single species occurring in Mindoro, proves to have a second species in Celebes.

We thus find a mammalian element in the Philippines showing distinct affinities, in certain groups, with Celebes, New Guinea, and Australia, corresponding to the rather conspicuous floral elements characteristic of these regions occurring also in the Philippine flora; and that the mammalian fauna of the Philippines corresponds with the flora in its alliances with both eastern and western Malaysia, the faunal elements from both regions doubtless having reached the Philippines through similar channels as did the floral elements.

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* Thomas, O., On the mammals obtained by Mr. John Whitehead during his recent visit to the Philippines, Trans. Zool. Soc. London **14** (1899) 377–412, *t. 30–36*.

The later land connections of the Balabac-Palawan-Calamian group with Borneo is strikingly brought out by Everett,* who logically concludes that these islands have never been connected with any part of the Philippines since they received their existing fauna,† but were connected with Borneo, or rather with a southeastern extension of continental Asia of which Borneo formed a part. His map clearly shows that Balabac, Palawan, and the Calamian and Cuyo Islands, and also Cagayan Sulu and the Sibutu-Sitanki group lie on the Asiatic-Bornean continental shelf, the separating waters being mostly less than 100 meters, and nowhere exceeding 200 meters in depth. Sibutu Passage and Mindoro Strait exceed 1,000 meters in depth, and the Sulu Sea attains a maximum depth of 2,700 meters, about 80 kilometers southeast of Cagayan Sulu, the latter forming a profound gulf separating the narrow Palawan and Sulu bridges from each other, and the Philippines proper from Borneo.

CORRELATION OF THE INDICATED BIOLOGIC ALLIANCES OF THE PHILIPPINES WITH THE GEOLOGIC HISTORY OF MALAYSIA

In interpreting probable previous land connections on the basis of the present known distribution of plants and animals, it is difficult to assign definite values to special groups. We merely know that mammals generally do not swim across broad separating seas; true fresh-water fishes, such as the cyprinoids, are also thus strictly limited; batrachians, while adapted to terrestrial life, are primarily adapted to fresh-water marsh conditions and cannot live in salt water in any stage of development; lizards and snakes are apparently better adapted to fortuitous distribution from one island to another by drift than are the batrachians or the mammals as a group; birds, bats, and most insects have, of course, the advantage of flight, yet many groups of birds and insects, and the bats especially, are curiously limited in their distribution, indicating that many do not migrate except over continuous land areas.

What is true of the inhibitions affecting the migrations of animals over insular areas is also true of plants. A number of species adapted to growth on the strand or in brackish water have special adaptations for dissemination of their fruits or seeds through the medium of ocean currents. Other species are clearly adapted for dissemination by the wind. Still others are definitely adapted for dissemination through the medium of migratory birds; and very many have been distributed by man. In fact, man as an agent for the dissemination of plants and animals is and long has been an important factor—a much more important factor than he is usually credited with being. In countries like the Philippines, however, a high percentage of all species growing in the primary forests have no manifest adaptations for dissemination, yet a number of characteristic species occurring in the Philippines are widely distributed outside of the Archipelago, or are species manifestly closely allied to others of the same genera occurring elsewhere, thus clearly indicating a common origin. To account for the presence of such types in the Philippines it is absolutely essential to postulate previously existing land connections with different parts of Malaysia, over which such species or their ancestors could migrate.

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* Everett, A. H., Remarks on the zoo-geographical relationships of the Island of Palawan and some adjacent islands, Proc. Zool. Soc. London (1889) 220–228, map.

† I should say, striking parts of their fauna.—E. D. M.

Each specialist is, of course, interested in his own group, and it is but natural that he should be influenced in his deductions by his own special knowledge and his own special interests. Frequently, too, the specialist has definite knowledge of the geographic distribution only of the particular group with which he is familiar.

Schlechter,* for instance, from his intensive knowledge of the Orchidaceae of Malaysia has concluded that Celebes, or at least the northern part of that island, should in a wider sense be included in the Papuasian floristic region, as a separation of the Moluccas and Celebes from New Guinea on the basis of the orchid flora is neither fixed nor possible. Is it, however, safe to draw conclusions on the basis of the geographic distribution of the species of one family only?

I have definitely shown † that in the Dipterocarpaceae, whose great trees are dominant in the primary forests of the Philippines, there is an overwhelming relationship with the flora of the Sunda Islands or western Malaysia.

We find this essentially Indo-Malaysian family, comprising about seventeen genera and about three hundred seventy-seven known species, to be most highly developed in Borneo, with eleven genera and slightly over one hundred species; or in the Sunda Islands, with eleven genera and one hundred forty-four species. The Eastern Peninsula is the next richest area, with eleven genera and one hundred thirty-five species; and the Philippines third, with nine genera and about fifty species. Sumatra will doubtless be found to be at least as rich in genera and in species as are Borneo and the neighboring parts of the Malay Peninsula. No representative reaches Formosa, although five genera, one species in each, reach the Babuyan Islands north of Luzon. The family is represented in India and well represented in Ceylon. There is one species in the Seychelles and one small anomalous genus in tropical Africa. The family has no representative in the American Tropics, nor in Australia or Polynesia, being essentially Indo-Malaysian.

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* Schlechter, R., Zur Kenntniss der Orchidaceen von Celebes, Fedde Repert. 10 (1911) 1–40; 66–96; 177–213.

† Merrill, E. D., Distribution of the Dipterocarpaceae: origin and relationships of the Philippine flora and causes of the differences between the floras of eastern and western Malaysia, Philip. Journ. Sci. **23** (1923) 1–33, *t. 1–8*.

In contrast to the rich dipterocarp flora in western Malaysia and in the Philippines we find in the entire region from Celebes to New Guinea but fourteen recorded species in four genera, as follows: *Anisoptera* with four species out of a total of twenty-one; *Hopea* with three species out of a total of fifty-six; *Shorea* with three species out of a total of more than one hundred; and *Vatica* with four species out of a total of about fifty, a grand total of fourteen species in the four genera having the approximate geographic distribution of the entire family. If a continental area had existed over what is now the entire Malaysian region at the time the Dipterocarpaceae was attaining its geographic distribution, we would expect to find the genera and species as numerous and as dominant in southeastern Malaysia as they are in western Malaysia and in the Philippines, for the climatic conditions in eastern Malaysia are practically identical with those of western Malaysia.

Diels * states that the Dipterocarpaceae plays an unimportant rôle in New Guinea and considers that there is no reason to believe that future investigations will greatly increase the known number of species. He makes the significant statement that the species that are sufficiently well known to allow of definite systematization stand in close relationship with those of Celebes and the Philippines and concludes that this family represents a younger element in the New Guinea flora that has been received from the northwest by way of Celebes and the Philippines.

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* Diels, L., Die Dipterocarpaceen von Papuasien, Engl. Bot. Jahrb. 57 (1922) 460–463.

In contrast to the manifestly western Malaysian alliances of the Philippine Dipterocarpaceae the characteristic and manifestly older family Myrtaceae shows equally strong special alliances with the islands south and southeast of the Philippines, or eastern Malaysia, and no special alliances with western Malaysia. Thus, *Mooria* (*Cloëzia*) is confined to Mindanao and New Caledonia, with one species in the former island and several in the latter; *Eucalyptus* has one indigenous species in Mindanao, which is dominant in favorable localities, and the same species occurs in Celebes, the Moluccas, New Guinea, and the Bismarck Archipelago, being one of the very few representatives of this large genus known from outside of Australia; *Mearnsia* has one species in Mindoro and Mindanao, one in New Guinea, and one in New Caledonia; *Osbornia* is a monotypic genus known from northern Australia, the Philippines, and eastern Borneo; *Xanthostemon* presents three species in the Philippines, one in Celebes, one or two in New Guinea, a few in Australia, and a considerable number in New Caledonia. Two other genera that may be considered as Australian types, *Leptospermum* and *Tristania,* are represented in the Philippines, but both are of general distribution all over the Malaysian region; while *Melaleuca* and *Baeckea* both occur in western Malaysia but are absent from the Philippines.

It is perfectly evident that different groups of plants and animals have originated and become dominant at different periods of geologic history. The discrepancies between the relationships of the Philippine flora as shown by the Dipterocarpaceae and Myrtaceae are explainable by reference to the geologic history of Malaysia. It is apparent that the Myrtaceae is the older group and that some of our southeastern representatives possibly reached the Philippines before continental connections were broken between Asia and Australia; that is, in the late Cretaceous or in the ep-Mesozoic interval; or if they came into the Philippines later, from New Guinea as a center, they came when land connections existed between the Philippines and the islands to the south and southeast, but after direct connections between eastern and western Malaysia had been broken. The Dipterocarpaceae originated later, probably in southern Asia and what is now the Sunda Islands, and extended into the Philippines when land connections existed between Borneo and the Philippines, but after direct land connections between

New Guinea and the Sunda Islands had been broken. It is possible that this family originated in the early Tertiary, although it possibly dates from the late Tertiary (Neogene); the geologic records show that the family was well represented in Luzon and was apparently dominant here in the Pliocene. However, the family apparently did not attain dominance anywhere until the late Tertiary—too late for it to attain a world-wide geographic distribution, and the family was largely confined to the region in which it originated, tropical Asia and Malaysia, and in Malaysia chiefly in the western part and the Philippines. Interrupting arms of the sea prevented many dipterocarp types from reaching eastern Malaysia.

Therefore, I consider the distribution of any one family of plants or any one group of animals to be an unsafe guide to follow in drawing general conclusions as to biogeographic relationships, a point that has been emphasized by Andrews * in reference to the Australian flora.

General conclusions should be based on a study of the geographic distribution of all groups of plants and animals taken in connection with the geologic and geographic history of the regions under discussion. Schlechter is doubtless correct in his conclusions as to the alliances of the Celebes and Papuan orchid flora, as he found that the greater part of the orchid species of Celebes showed a remarkable affinity with Papuan ones, although there were scattered unmistakable relations to Philippine forms; but may not these orchidaceous Celebesian-Philippine alliances be merely the northern extension of Papuan types which have been able to travel the longer distance into the Philippines, as has been the case with Papuan types in many other families of plants, as well as in various groups of animals? The fact must not be overloooked that outside of the Orchidaceae there are many genera and species that are known only from Celebes and the Philippines and an equally remarkable series confined to the Philippines and the Moluccas, New Guinea, and even New Caledonia, to say nothing of Australia. It would seem then that, granting that the Celebes flora should be classed as Papuasian, the island has served as a transmission region, allowing numerous Papuasian and other eastern Malaysian types to reach the Philippines, and doubtless at the same time permitting various western Malaysian types to reach eastern Malaysia via the Philippines. It is, of course, perfectly evident that

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* Andrews, E. C., The geological history of the Australian flowering plants, Am. Journ. Sci. 42 (1916) 172.

intermigrations would take place, for it would be illogical to assume that migrations of plants and animals in an insular region like that under discussion would be all in the same direction.

From the foregoing discussions of the floristic and faunistic relationships of the Philippines with surrounding regions (pp. 77 to 127) several striking facts are evident. There are manifestly Asiatic types of plants and, to a less degree, animals, especially in northern Luzon, that are unknown from Malaysia proper (see p. 83). The flora and fauna, as a whole, is, however, overwhelmingly Malaysian, presenting definite and unmistakable alliances with both eastern and western Malaysia. At the same time, we find in the Philippines a striking series of Australian types, more numerous in both genera and species, and definitely stronger than are the similar elements in western Malaysia (see p. 101). An explanation of these specific alliances is to be found in the geologic history, fragmentary as our knowledge of this is, of Malaysia as a whole.

The Asiatic elements in the Archipelago, especially those in northern Luzon, are probably to be explained on the basis of previous land connections with southeastern Asia and Formosa, but these connections were ancient. The Formosan rift, extending through the Bashi Channel between Formosa and the Batan Islands, was apparently established in the early Tertiary and since that time there has been no land connection between the Philippines and Formosa, or direct connection between the Philippines and southern Asia. This conclusion is supported by the fact that not one of the numerous eastern Malaysian types of plants in the Philippines extends to Formosa, and furthermore by the almost complete lack of special alliances between the fauna and the flora of Formosa and those of the Philippines, or between those of southeastern Asia and the Philippines. It would seem that in the early Tertiary there was a migration of Asiatic types into Malaysia via the Philippines, but this migration was a weaker one than that following the route via the Malay Peninsula and Sumatra, a route that remained open to the close of the Pleistocene. No further discussion of these ancient Asiatic-Philippine connections seems to be called for here.

With Malaysia as a whole, however, the Philippine connections have been very much more pronounced, and of very much greater duration, extending, with certain interruptions, from the late Mesozoic to the end of the Pleistocene, or in some respects possibly into the Recent.

It seems to be perfectly clear that in the Cretaceous the Philippines or parts of what is now the Philippines formed a part of the great continent extending from Asia to Australia and included all of Malaysia. The eastern boundary of the present Philippine Archipelago probably marked the approximate eastern boundary of this ancient Cretaceous continent. At this period, as noted by Chamberlain and Salisbury,* the angiosperms were in marked dominance, and during this period genera now living became more and more abundant, giving the whole flora a distinctly modern aspect. The same authors † further note that in plant history the succeeding Eocene was not "the dawn of the recent," for the great change from the medieval to the modern, in its main essentials, had taken place in the early Cretaceous. In the development of modern floras, the Eocene was not even a period of any radical innovation.

It has been noted that in Mesozoic times (p. 17) there was some land mass representing what is now the Philippines, and that during the Cretaceous what is now the Philippine Archipelago was a great land mass above the sea. It seems safe to assume that this land mass was a part of the great Asiatic-Australian continent and that its vegetation was in general similar to that of other parts of Malaysia of that period, although no Philippine Cretaceous plant remains are known. The same general conditions probably extended through the Eocene.

Geologists are in agreement that the Cretaceous was a period of remarkable climatic uniformity, in which strictly tropical types of vegetation existed far to the north and to the south. These equable climatic conditions permitted a rapid and wide distribution of the flora in both hemispheres. It is highly probable that some types of plants have persisted in the Philippines since they attained this distribution in the late Cretaceous, at least so far as generic types are concerned. We may thus explain the wide distribution of families and genera in what is now tropical Asia, Malaysia, and Australia, in that they attained their distribution, so far as they were then developed, before the ancient Asiatic-Australian continent was broken up, being able to travel over continuous land areas.

The break between Australia and Asia came in the late Cretaceous or in the ep-Mesozoic interval and it seems to be evident that, since that time, all intermigrations of plants and animals between Australia and Asia and between eastern and western Malaysia have been interrupted or inhibited by the constant archipelagic condition of some parts of Malaysia. This brief résumé of early geologic history clears the way for a more detailed discussion of the eastern and western Malaysian question, the causes for the manifest differences between the faunas and floras of the two regions, and the intermediate position the Philippine Archipelago holds in reference to both eastern and western Malaysia.

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* Chamberlin, T. C., and R. D. Salisbury, Geology 3 (1907) 173.

† Op. cit. 226.

In a recently published paper * a detailed discussion is given in reference to the geologic history of the Dipterocarpaceae, the geographic distribution of the family and its significance, as well as an attempt to explain the fundamental causes for the different biologic aspects of eastern and western Malaysia. Briefly, it is shown that this family of great trees, which dominate the primary forests of parts of India, Ceylon, the Eastern Peninsula, western Malaysia, and the Philippines, is very weakly developed in eastern Malaysia; that geologically speaking the family is not an ancient one; that the various species are essentially adapted to humidity, light, and temperature conditions of the low-altitude Indo-Malaysian primary forests; that generally speaking the fruits are adapted to neither wind nor water dissemination; and that the various genera must have attained their present distribution over continuous land connections and at a time when continuous primary forests already existed. Much of the following discussion is based on this paper.

Molengraaff † has concisely summarized the present knowledge of the distribution of land and sea areas in the Malaysian region, based on the latest available geologic and hydrographic data. His very definite conclusions cannot be ignored by any student of the distribution of the flora and the fauna in this region. From the data so ably presented by him and summarized below it is perfectly evident why we find the striking differences between the floras and the faunas of eastern and western Malaysia, and his conclusions have a direct bearing on

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* Merrill, E. D., Distribution of the Dipterocarpaceae. Origin and relationships of the Philippine flora and causes of the differences between the floras of eastern and western Malaysia, Philip. Journ. Sci. **23** (1923) 1–33, *t. 1–8*.

† Molengraaff, G. A. F., Modern deep-sea research in the East Indian Archipelago, Geogr. Journ. 57 (1921) 95–121, *fig. 1–9, map.*

any explanation of the origin of the Philippine fauna and flora that can be offered.

He discusses briefly the presence of the two continental shelves in the Asiatic-Australian region and their significance, and the intervening Australasian mediterranean sea between Asia and Australia and its significance.

The two great shelves are attached to the continents of Asia and Australia—the Asiatic bank, or Sunda shelf, and the Australian bank, or Sahul shelf. The Sunda shelf is the greatest one in the world, comprising approximately 1,850,000 square kilometers and carrying upon it the greater Sunda Islands, Sumatra, Java, and Borneo, and the numerous smaller islands as far east as Bali. The Sahul shelf carries upon it New Guinea. The surfaces of both shelves are almost perfectly even, while the average depth of the water is but about 60 meters. Both shelf regions have been stable at least since the close of the Pleistocene, but there have been changes in water level which are readily explained by the falling of the sea level in consequence of the growth of the Pleistocene ice caps. During the Pleistocene ice ages New Guinea was a part of the Australian continent, and the Sunda Islands, Sumatra, Java, and Borneo were united with southern Asia. An elevation of 45 meters to-day would connect the greater Sunda Islands with Asia, while an elevation of 20 meters would unite New Guinea with Australia.

Interposed between these two stable continental areas is an intermediate area, radically different in its present physical features and in its geologic history. This intermediate area is one of inclosed deep-sea basins, and is still unstable and orogenetically active, as it has been during the preceding geologic periods. The striking features are the well-marked troughlike shape of the majority of the deep-sea basins; their great depths, varying from 1,200 to 6,000 meters; the elongated form of most of the islands bordering these basins, their elongation being parallel to the troughs, these islands usually presenting very considerable altitudes; the arrangement of both basins and islands in curved rows; and the conspicuous signs of elevation in modern times. Of the twenty-seven deep-sea basins in the entire Malaysian Archipelago four only are found in the western part—that is, associated with the Malay Peninsula, Sumatra, and Java—and these are west and south of the large land masses. The other twenty-three basins are all associated with the eastern part of the Archipelago, two between the northern end of Borneo and China, the remainder all east of Borneo and Bali. That is, these deep, inclosed, troughlike seas are essentially characteristic of the entire group of islands from the Macassar Strait and Lombok Passage to eastern New Guinea and northward including the Philippines.

As Molengraaff states, it is reasonable to surmise that a genetic connection must exist between the subsidence of the trough-shaped deep-sea basins and the elevation of the adjoining elongated islands, their common origin to be sought in the same crustal movement; that is, a process of folding at a certain depth. We have then a large unstable stress area between two even larger stable areas.

Molengraaff's general conclusions of interest in connection with the present subject are as follows:

> 1. The Australasian Mediterranean Sea consists of two strongly contrasted areas, one with an exceptionally uniform and undisturbed submarine topography, and another with an extremely complicated topography.
>
> 2. The first area is that of the great shelves, which are attached to the continents of Asia and Australia; the other that of the enclosed deep sea basins.
>
> 3. The area of the shelf seas has been stable and has not been affected by diastrophism, at least since the end of the Pliocene Age. The area to which the deep-sea basins belong has since that time continued to be unstable as it was before and has been, and is still, the seat of powerful orogenetic movements.
>
> 4. The shelf seas owe their origin to the submersion of a strongly peneplainized land surface caused by a rise of the sea-level of at least 40 fathoms, consequent on the melting of the ice-caps at and after the close of the Pleistocene Ice Age.
>
> 5. The deep-sea basins and the adjoining elevated islands are simultaneously formed, and continue to be developed by a process of folding at a certain depth.

The geologic history of Sundaland from the end of the Pliocene through the Pleistocene is outlined by Molengraaff as follows: At the end of the Pliocene or the beginning of the Pleistocene the present Sunda Sea probably consisted of low land or a group of islands. At the beginning of the ice age the sea level sank and stood at least 40 fathoms lower than at the present day. The great land area resulting united Sumatra, Borneo, and Java with southern Asia.

During the Pleistocene a period of long-continued and active erosion followed. At the end of the glacial period the sea level rose again to its present height, consequent on the melting of the ice caps. The Sunda peneplain was gradually submerged, and for the greater part was covered by the sea as it is to-day.

There was, however, not one but a succession of colder glacial periods alternating with warmer interglacial ones. Consequently, with the alternate withdrawal and release of the water as the ice caps formed and melted, the Sunda peneplain has been alternately above and below sea level, and insular and continental conditions have likewise alternated as a result. This theoretical history of Sundaland is borne out by its present geology and geography. The evidences of recent subsidences, or a corresponding rise in sea level, are found all along the coast of the Sunda Sea; no traces of modern elevations of importance are found; the land to a great distance from the coast is flat and the even surface of the shelf is prolonged without change of character far into the interior of the low country surrounding most of the Sunda Sea; deltas are generally wanting, although the Sumatran and Bornean rivers transport heavy loads of sediment; and in general coast lines are embayed and the rivers possess wide funnel-shaped mouths with great depths in their lower courses; that is, the lower parts of the streams are drowned rivers, which in many instances can be traced far out into the sea.

In Pleistocene time a divide extended across the Sunda Sea from Sumatra via Bangka, Billiton, and the Karimata group to Borneo, the drainage of the northern slopes being into the China Sea, that of the southern slopes into the southern part of Macassar Strait. The various rivers of the east coast of Sumatra and of northern and Western Borneo discharging into the Sunda Sea are the dismembered branches of this previously existing very large river. Thus the Musi and the Kapuas, one in Sumatra, the other in Borneo, and both large streams, were confluents of the northern main stream flowing into the China Sea. Weber, quoted by Molengraaff, thus explains certain remarkable facts in reference to the present distribution of fresh-water fishes in Malaysia. The fish fauna of the Musi in eastern Sumatra is strikingly similar to that of the Kapuas in western Borneo, though these two rivers are now separated by a wide expanse of sea. In striking contrast to these faunistically very closely allied streams of Sumatra and Borneo are the Kapuas in western Borneo and the Kutei of eastern Borneo; these two streams, notwithstanding the fact that both take their rise in the same divide, show very striking differences in their faunas. The great river system that in Pleistocene times flowed to the northeast and emptied into the China Sea took the drainage of the eastern slopes of Sumatra, at least a part of that of the Malay Peninsula, perhaps some of that of Siam and Indo-China, and certainly most of that of northern and western Borneo. On the other hand, the rivers of the southern end of Sumatra, of southern Borneo, and of northern Java probably were parts of another great drainage system flowing westerly and emptying into the southern part of Macassar Strait.

Molengraaff cites as final proof of the great submersion of the region, the great barrier reef that marks the east coast of the submerged Sundaland which evidently originated from a fringing reef of late Pleistocene time. This barrier reef was not recognized as such until Niermeyer * called attention to it, the reasons being the exceptionally great distance from the coast to which it belongs and previous insufficient knowledge of the depths in Macassar Strait.

From Sundaland a narrow northeastern projection of the Asiatic continental shelf carries upon it Balabac, Palawan, the Calamian Islands, and some smaller islands and extends to the vicinity of Mindoro. Likewise, Mindanao is connected with Borneo by means of the now drowned Sulu Isthmus, this forming the Sulu Archipelago. Mindanao was manifestly connected with the drowned island Celebes by a similar isthmus marked by the Sangi Islands, while eastern Mindanao was apparently connected through the Talaur Islands with the drowned island Gilolo and its neighbors Ternate and Tidore, as well as with New Guinea. It is generally agreed among geologists that there has been no direct land connection between Borneo and Celebes later than the early Tertiary (see p. 142).

In connection with Molengraaff's conclusions attention is called to Brouwer's † important contributions from the standpoint of earthquakes in relation to the geologic structure and the tectonic features of Malaysia. Figure 3, showing the tectonic features of the region, is adapted from Brouwer with the addition of Philippine data supplied by Dickerson, while fig. 2, showing the stable and unstable regions of Malaysia is after Brouwer. These two figures should be compared with Plate 1, showing the positions of Wallace's and Weber's Lines.

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* Niermeyer, J. F., Barriere-riffen en atollen in de Oost-Indische Archipel, Tijdschr. Kon. Nederl. Aardr. Gen. 28 (1911) 880, quoted by Molengraaff.

† Brouwer, H. A., Some relations of earthquakes to geologic structure in the East Indian Archipelago, Bull. Seismol. Soc. Am. 11 (1921) 166–182, *fig. 1–7;* The major tectonic features of the Dutch East Indies, Journ. Wash. Acad. Sci. 12 (1922) 173–185, *fig. 1.*

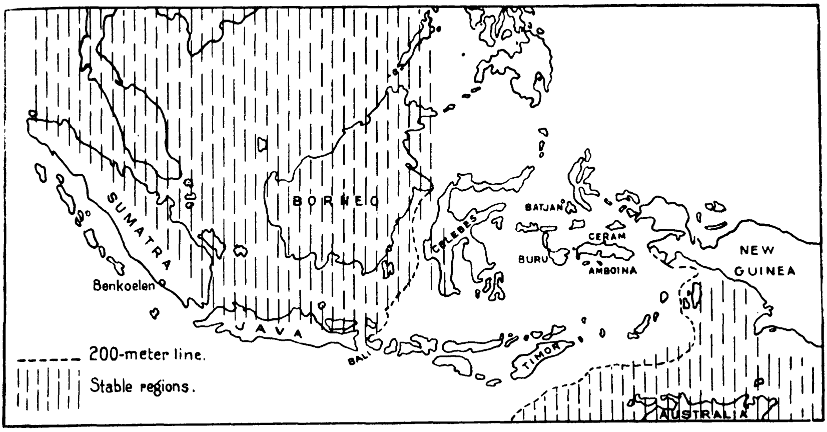

FIG. 2. Schematic representation of the stable and unstable regions in the East Indian Archipelago.

Geologic evidence is strong that within the Tertiary there were land connections between the Philippines and the islands to the south and southeast, but the evidence from all sources does not seem to indicate that the connections to the south or those with Borneo were more than narrow isthmuses. The botanical evidence is that the Bornean connections were earlier and were either more pronounced or longer continued than the Celebes-Moluccan.

It is evident that there have been at times various other connections between what are now separate islands in the group south and southeast of the Philippines. It is likewise very evi-

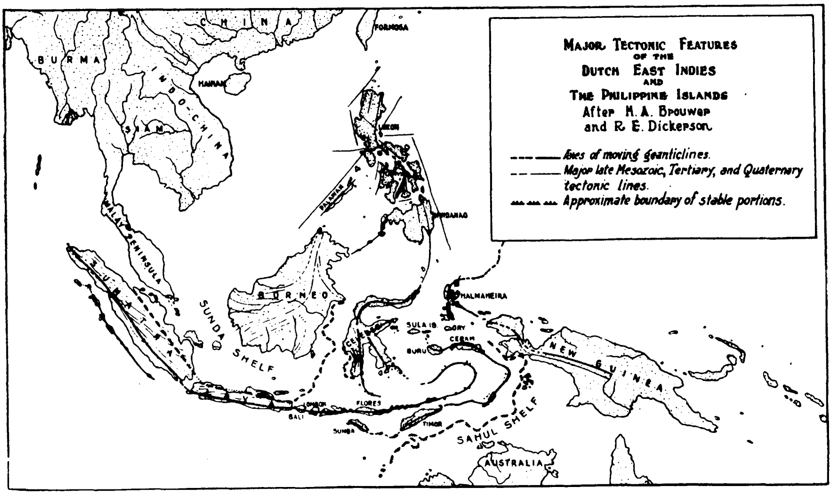
MAJOR TECTONIC FEATURES OF THE DUTCH EAST INDIES AND THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
After H. A. Brouwer and R. E. Dickerson
Axes of moving geanticlines.
Major late Mesozoic, Tertiary, and Quaternary tectonic lines.
Approximate boundary of stable portions.
CHINA
FORMOSA
BURMA
HAINAN
INDO-CHINA
SIAM
LUZON
PALAWAN
MINDANAO
MALAY PENINSULA
SUMATRA
SUNDA SHELF
BORNEO
CELEBES
SULA IS.
BURU
CERAM
HALMAHEIRA
NEW GUINEA
BALI
LOMBOK
FLORES
SUMBA
TIMOR
SAHUL SHELF
AUSTRALIA

FIG. 3. Major tectonic features of the Dutch East Indies and the Philippine Islands.

dent that what are now individual islands in the Philippines were formerly separated into several, and also that what are now separate islands were united into one. Thus, Mindanao in the Pleistocene was separated into at least four, perhaps five, distinct islands, the uplift taking place in late Pleistocene or post-Pleistocene time; the Zambales region in Luzon was manifestly an island separated from Luzon; Cebu was several small separate islands. Samar and Leyte were manifestly connected. San Bernardino Strait, between Samar and Luzon, has not been permanent, but at times these two islands have been united. Marinduque was certainly united with Luzon. Panay and Negros have been at times united with Masbate. Many of these changes took place as late as the Pliocene or Pleistocene, or some even in the Recent.

With this geologic history in mind it becomes very evident why we find the Asiatic types of plants and animals rapidly dwindling in numbers in the islands east of Macassar Strait, with a corresponding but even more rapid decrease of Australian types as we go westward from New Guinea, and their almost entire absence from the Sunda Islands. The entire region from Celebes to New Guinea is a transition area in which Australian and Asiatic types have mingled, but the persistent archipelagic nature of the entire region from Macassar Strait to New Guinea has prevented general intermigration of these Australian and Asiatic types. Hence, eastward of Macassar Strait there is a very rapid dwindling of Asiatic types, so rapid in certain groups as to be almost startling, as in the true freshwater fishes, from 212 in Sumatra, 292 in Borneo, and 131 in Java to only 4 in Celebes; the amphibians with the corresponding numbers 50, 78, 37, and 25; the mammals 115, 133, 68, and 39; and the reptiles 175, 191, 129, and 87,* with fewer and fewer in each group as we go eastward from Celebes to New Guinea. In the animal kingdom a few Australian types reach Macassar Strait, while in the plant kingdom a few types extend west of it.

These side lights on Malaysian geologic history are significant in reference to the general problem of the biogeographic boundaries in Malaysia that have been proposed by various authors, especially since Wallace's Line was so denominated by Huxley, based on Wallace's observations that Macassar Strait and Lombok Passage form a striking line of demarcation between the faunas of eastern and western Malaysia.

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* These are Van Kampen's figures of 1909.

Wallace's Line was placed between Bali and Lombok, extending northward through Macassar Strait between Borneo and Celebes and thence, turning to the eastward between Celebes and Mindanao, extended into the Pacific Ocean. It was based on observations and published statements of Alfred Russell Wallace regarding the evident differences in the biology of eastern and western Malaysia. Critics of Wallace's Line have not always been entirely fair to Wallace. In his Island Life he clearly states that Celebes, although included by him in the Australian Region, from a balance of considerations, almost equally belongs to the Oriental Region, and that it consequently must be left out of account in the general sketch of the zoölogical features of the Australian Region. Again, he speaks of it as an "anomalous island," because both by what it has and by what it lacks it occupies such an exactly intermediate position between the Australian and Oriental Regions.

In reference to the position of Wallace's Line, our present data seem to show that this fundamental dividing line does not turn to the east between Celebes and Mindanao, but extends northward through Sibutu Passage, Sulu Sea, and Mindoro Strait between the Calamian group and Mindoro, thence northward and then eastward between Formosa and the Batan Islands into the Pacific. The extension of this line north of Macassar Strait, like its southward extension between Bali and Lombok, has not been of so long-continued and permanent a nature as Macassar Strait (see Plate 1).

There have been numerous critics of the validity of Wallace's Line, and several substitutes have been proposed, based on the geographic distribution of this or that group of organisms; perhaps the most notable is that proposed by Pelseneer * and denominated by him Weber's Line, but Weber's Line is untenable when the geographic distribution of all groups of organisms is considered, even as is Wallace's Line.

Weber's Line extends between Timor and Australia, then northward between Sermata and Babber Islands, thence curving slightly to the east, recurving to the west south of Buru, eastward again through the Pitt Passage north of Buru, then

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* Pelseneer, P., La ligne de Weber, limite zoologique de l'Asie et de l'Australie, Bull. Acad. Roy. Belg. (1904) 1001–1022.

northward through the Molucca Passage into the Pacific Ocean west of Obi, Ternate, and Halmahera (Gilolo). I am inclined to modify this somewhat, carrying it farther to the eastward south of Babber and Tenimber, and then northward between Kei and Aru, as well as north of Buru and Ceram, being influenced in this matter by the studies of Brouwer and Molengraaff. I am not certain whether Halmahera should be east or west of the line, for it may well prove to be the case that the line should be placed between Halmahera and New Guinea. The positions of both Wallace's and Weber's Lines, and suggested modifications, are shown in Plate 1.

It is unnecessary here to give a detailed discussion of the different views as to where the line of demarcation between the Asiatic and the Australian faunas should be placed, as this question has been excellently reviewed by Pelseneer. The problem as stated by him resolved itself into establishing a simple line of demarcation between Asia and Australia, or in recognizing a region of transition between the two continents. Pelseneer favored the principle of a simple line rather than a transition region; but, in view of our present data, it is evident that no simple line can be drawn that applies to all groups. The idea of a transition region, first proposed by S. Müller in 1846 and supported by Heilprin, Von Martens, Flower and Lydekker, Kükenthal, Van Kampen, Barbour, and others in one form or another, seems to represent the situation correctly, and this transition region in which the Asiatic and Australian faunas and floras mingle, is practically delimited by Wallace's Line to the west, and by Weber's Line to the east.

The essential fact in reference to these two proposed biogeographic boundary lines is that both are apparently due to fundamental geologic conditions, both being ancient continental boundaries.

In reference to Borneo and Celebes the Sarasins * state that, as Celebes and Borneo do not present a single animal in common that is not found also in Java, Sumatra, or the Philippines, there is not the slightest possibility that a direct land bridge ever existed between Celebes and Borneo across Macassar Strait, since early Tertiary times. The significant part of this

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* Sarasin, P. und F., Materialen zur Naturgeschichte der Insel Celebes, III. Ueber die geologische Geschichte der Insel Celebes auf Grund der Thierverbreitung (1901).

statement is that Macassar Strait is geologically the oldest and by far the most important part of Wallace's Line. Macassar Strait has, then, been a continuous arm of the sea for a very long period and as such has been a very important limiting factor in the intermigrations of both plants and animals between eastern and western Malaysia. Migrations of western Malaysian types into Celebes have not been direct from its near neighbor, Borneo, but by the roundabout routes through Java and the Lesser Sunda Islands to the south and the Sulu Archipelago and Mindanao to the north. This explains, in a large degree, the anomalous fauna of Celebes, which puzzled Wallace, so far as its western types are concerned, and also explains the paucity of fresh-water fishes in Celebes as compared with their great abundance in Sundaland and their fair development in Mindanao.

In reference to Weber's Line it is significant that Molengraaff * states that the trough sea or series of trough seas consisting of the Timor Sea separating Timor from Australia, the Kei trough, the Ceram trough, and the Ceram Sea is an important geologic boundary, as it separates totally different structures from each other. He states that the nonvolcanic islands of this arc originated as oceanic ones by anticlinal folding and that, geologically, they stand in close relationship with eastern Asia but have no connection at all with Australia. If we are to accept a geologic boundary between Australia and Asia, then the boundary must be drawn between Timor and Australia and between Ceram and New Guinea. This is approximately Weber's Line.

In past geologic times much of the area between southeastern Asia and Australia has been occupied by epeiric seas, at least since the Cretaceous. Dr. Roy E. Dickerson calls my attention to the facts that Java, Sumatra, and Borneo are in large part covered by marine Tertiary sediments and that New Guinea is also largely composed of similar sediments; the sediments in British New Guinea are largely Miocene. Java, Sumatra, and Borneo on the one hand, and New Guinea on the other hand, are land masses associated with shelf seas which have consequently during Tertiary times been alternately dry and flooded by shallow seas. Practically throughout the Tertiary New

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* Molengraaff, G. A. F., Geologie in: De Zeeën van Nederlandsh Oost-Indië (1921) 272–357, *t. 1–7.*

Guinea, Celebes, Borneo, Java, and Sumatra have changed their patterns from epoch to epoch. During the Pleistocene Java, Sumatra, and Borneo were alternately connected and disconnected with the Asiatic mainland, and New Guinea was alternately connected and disconnected with Australia. Formosa has had the same history in reference to Asia. The great difference between the regions now delimited by the Asiatic and Australian continental shelves and the intermediate insular area is the presence of great development during Pleistocene times in the intermediate stress area of very notable marine deeps and corresponding upthrust island masses.

It would seem that the real significance of both Wallace's and Weber's Lines, as biogeographic boundaries, is due primarily to fundamental geologic conditions. Wallace's Line is merely the approximate western boundary of the unstable insular area, and Weber's Line is apparently the approximate eastern boundary of the same terrane and bears much the same relationship to New Guinea and Australia that Wallace's Line bears to Asia or, rather, the former eastern boundary of the Asiatic continent. The fact seems to be sufficiently well established that two ancient more or less stable continental areas, now delimited by the Asiatic and Australian continental shelves, existed in the region under discussion wherein both plants and animals migrated over continuous land areas. It seems also to be as thoroughly established that there has existed since Cretaceous times an intermediate insular area occupying the space between the ancient Asiatic and Australian continents, which at times, especially in the Pleistocene, has been markedly unstable. The western boundary of this unstable area where it impinges on the old Asiatic continent (the present Asiatic continental shelf) is Wallace's Line, and its eastern boundary, where it impinges on the old Australian continent (the present Australian continental shelf) is Weber's Line. Throughout the entire intermediate insular region, which included much of what is now the Philippines, intermigrations have been interrupted or inhibited by the prevailing archipelagic conditions.

Various biologists who have studied the subject are in agreement on the general proposition that the entire region from Lombok and Celebes to New Guinea is a transition one in which the Indian and Australian faunas and floras mingle, where from east to west Australian types diminish rapidly, and where from west to east Asiatic types decrease with practically equal rapidity. From a zoölogical standpoint the facts in reference to this transition area are clearly brought out by Weber * and by Van Kampen.†

Barbour ‡ states the case thus:

> Neither Wallace's nor any other line can be held to form a real zoölogical boundary. A transition zone *with a fairly definite western frontier* [italics mine. E. D. M.] and with an eastern frontier incapable of equally clear definition seems really to be the condition which serves to separate the Malayan from the Papuasian subregions. This zone may be about equally well defined for any of the groups of land animals, and the boundaries for the distribution of the several groups coincide with reasonable accuracy.

The "fairly definite western boundary" is Wallace's Line, and I would merely add to Barbour's statement the fact that Weber's Line seems to form a fairly definite eastern boundary of this transition zone, perhaps comparable with Wallace's Line as its western boundary. Much work remains to be done, however, in reference to the relative values of the two proposed lines, but Wallace's Line cannot be abandoned in favor of Weber's Line or vice versa.

We have seen that in the Cretaceous a continuous continental area existed from Asia to Australia covering what is now Malaysia. This allowed the intermigration of the plants and animals of that time over the entire region. In the late Cretaceous the actual separation of Australia from Asia took place, and since that time archipelagic conditions have constantly existed in what is now Malaysia, or at least in certain parts, notably the eastern part, of this region.

Ancestral types having thus been generally disseminated, and geographically large tropical areas thus populated having become separated from each other and having remained separate since the early Tertiary, it is but natural to expect that secondary centers of origin and dispersal would have been established. In this connection it is only necessary to mention Australia, where due to long isolation and the prevailing soil and climatic conditions, a remarkable, specialized vegetation has developed.*

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* Weber, M., Der Indo-australische Archipel und die Geschichte seiner Tierwelt (1902).

† Van Kampen, P. N., De Zoogeografie van den Indischen Archipel, Nat. Tijdschr. Nederl. Ind. (1909) Bijblad 3, 4; English translation, Am. Nat. 45 (1911) 537-560.

‡ Barbour, T., A contribution to the zoögeography of the East Indian Islands, Mem. Mus. Comp. Zool. Harvard Univ. 44 (1912) 1-203, *t. 1-8.*

In the tropical regions under discussion it seems to be evident that two secondary centers of origin and dispersal became established after the Australian region was separated from Asia. One of these is what has been called western Malaysia in this paper, which, although receiving constant accretions to its fauna and flora from Asia, has, at least in the plant kingdom, evolved a number of remarkable plant types; for this region we may well adopt Molengraaff's proposed name Sundaland. The other tropical region corresponding to Sundaland is New Guinea, for Miss Gibbs † has already pointed out the fact that this must be considered a center of origin and distribution; this may well be called Papualand. A striking case in support of Miss Gibbs's statement is found in the genus *Couthovia,* long known only from Fiji. In 1898 a third species was described from Celebes which three years later was also found in the Philippines. Recently ten species have been described from New Guinea.

As Sundaland has supplied many ancestral types to the Philippines via the Sulu and Palawan bridges from Borneo, so Papualand has supplied a considerable number to the Philippines, and at the same time various tropical types to northern Australia. It seems to be clear, however, from the following quotation from Sir Baldwin Spencer ‡ that tropical types of Papuan origin have not strongly persisted in Australia; a considerable number of striking Australian types have, however, persisted in New Guinea, and some have extended far to the north, occurring throughout the Philippine group.

> It seems probable that the entrance into Australia of the second migration took place in early Pleistocene times, and it is important to note that in succeeding years the hot arid zone gradually crept further and further northwards. This hot arid zone included the northern parts of Australia, and extended across into Papua. The northern littoral of Australia would then have a climate more or less similar to that of Central Australia at the

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* Andrews, E. C., The geological history of Australian flowering plants, Am. Journ. Sci. 42 (1916) 171–232.

† Gibbs, L. S., Dutch N. W. New Guinea—A Contribution to the Phytogeography and Flora of the Arfak Mountains (1917) 1–126 (p. 39).

‡ Spencer, Sir B., Presidential address to the Australian Association for the Advancement of Science, Rept. Fifteenth Meeting Austral. Assoc. Adv. Sci. (1921) LXXXI.

present day. Nothing strikes the traveller in the Northern Territory, right up from the Tropic of Capricorn to Darwin, more than the absence of tropical vegetation. On the eastern coast of Queensland, in parts, there are rich scrubs where the remnants of a flora, and, to a small extent, of a fauna reminiscent of Papua exist. In the very centre of the Continent there is, in the Macdonnel Ranges, entirely isolated and surrounded by tracts of dry arid country spreading over endless distances, just one gorge, 2 miles at most in length, where a small colony of palm trees gives a hint of a past climate very different from that of the present. For the most part, the one striking feature of Northern Australia is the almost entire absence of anything like a luxuriant tropic vegetation or any abundance of animal life.

The intermediate insular region between Sundaland and Papualand has had, as noted above, a geologic history very different from these two continental regions of the Pleistocene (and earlier) to the west and to the east. This region extends northward and includes most of what is now the Philippines, being approximately delimited by Weber's Line to the east and by Wallace's Line, as modified by Dickerson and Merrill, to the west (see Plate 1). It remains unnamed as a unit, but may be conveniently divided into a northern part (Philippine) and a southern part (Celebes, Moluccan, Lesser Sunda Islands). The fauna and the flora of this region, in addition to the relic types dating to the ancient Cretaceous Asiatic-Australian continent, seem to a large degree to be made up of infiltrations from both Sundaland and Papualand. Probably no extensive migrations have taken place between Sundaland and Papualand since the Cretaceous or perhaps the early Tertiary, but intermigrations have been inhibited and at times prevented by the more or less constant archipelagic condition that has existed here since the end of the Cretaceous, and which was especially pronounced in the Pleistocene. Thus, it is clear why the Asiatic types of both plants and animals dwindle rapidly in numbers eastward from Macassar Strait, and why there is a corresponding reduction of Australian types westward from New Guinea.

The geographic distribution of the Dipterocarpaceae, as discussed by me,* shows the improbability that a former continental land mass covered the entire Malaysian region since the Oligocene and further indicates the fundamental relationship of the Philippine flora with the flora of western and not with that of eastern Malaysia. It is interesting to note the range of genera of the entire Malaysian flora * in connection with the same proposition.

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* Merrill, E. D., Geographic distribution of the Dipterocarpaceae, Philip. Journ. Sci. 23 (1923) 1–33, *t. 1–8.*

In western Malaysia—that is, the Malay Peninsula, Sumatra, Java, Bali, and Borneo, those islands west of Wallace's Line—excluding the manifestly introduced forms, there are about 356 genera which are not known to occur east of Macassar Strait except in the Philippines where 218, or about 61 per cent, are represented. In eastern Malaysia—that is, Celebes, the Moluccas, and New Guinea, all east of Wallace's Line—there are about 225 genera which do not extend to western Malaysia, although 56, or about 25 per cent, reach the Philippines.

It is fully realized that, with the distinctly imperfect knowledge of the Malaysian flora, the numbers cited above will be altered as exploration progresses and various groups of plants are monographed, but it is doubtful if any appreciable change is to be expected in the percentages of exclusively eastern and western Malaysian genera that extend to the Philippines.

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* Data compiled from the general literature covering the entire region and the following special publications: Franssen Herderschee, A., Nova Guinea. Résultats de l'expédition scientifique Neérlandaise a la Nouvelle-Guinée en 1912 et 1913 **12** (1912–17) Botanique (*see* Lorenz); Hemsley, W. B., Report on the Botany of the south-eastern Moluccas, Bot. Challenger Exped. **13** (1895) 101–226; Koorders-Schumacher, A., Systematisches Verzeichnis der zum Herbar Koorders gehörenden * * * Phanerogamen und Pteridophyten III Celebes (1914) 1–144; Koorders, S. H., Exkursionsflora von Java **1–3** (1911–12); Lauterbach, C., Beiträge zur Flora von Papuasian I Engl. Bot. Jahrb. **49** (1912) 1–169; II op. cit. **50** (1913) 1–170; III op. cit. 288–289; IV op. cit. **52** (1914) 19–220; V op. cit. **54** (1916) 69–261; VI op. cit. **55** (1917) 19–125; VII op. cit. **56** (1920) 31–414; Lorenz, H. A., Nova Guinea. Résultats de l'expédition scientifique néerlandaise a la Nouvelle-Guinée en 1907 **8** (1909–13) Botanique (*see* Franssen Herderschee); Merrill, E. D., Reliquiae Robinsonianae, Philip. Journ. Sci. **11** (1916) Bot. 243–319; An interpretation of Rumphius's Herbarium Amboinense (1917) 1–595; A bibliographic enumeration of Bornean plants, Journ. Straits Branch Roy. As. Soc. (1921) 1–637; King G., and King and J. S. Gamble, Materials for a flora of the Malayan Peninsula **1** (1889–93) 1–430; **2** (1893–96) 431–802; **3** (1897) 1–608; **4** (1903–09) 1–1126; **4** (1912–) 1–468 (Ranunculaceae to Salicaceae) (*see* Ridley); Ridley, H. N., Materials for a flora of the Malayan Peninsula (Monocotyledons) **1** (1907) 1–233; **2** (1907) 1–235; **3** (1907) 1–197 (*see* King); Report on the botany of the Wollaston Expedition to Dutch New Guinea, 1912–13, Trans. Linn. Soc. Bot. **9** (1916) 1–269; The flora of the Malay Peninsula **1** (1922) XXXV, 1–918, *f. 1–75;* **2** (1923) VI, 1–672, *f. 76–131;* Gibbs, L. S., Dutch N. W. New Guinea. A Contribution to the Phytogeography and Flora of the Arfak Mountains (1917) 1–226; Schumann, K., and K. Lauterbach, Die Flora der Deutschen Schutzgebiete in der Südsee (1901) 1–613, and Nachträge (1905) 1–446.

There are, then, numerous genera from western Malaysia in the Philippines that are not known to occur in eastern Malaysia, and fewer but a striking assemblage of Celebesian, Moluccan, New Guinean, and Australian types extending to the Philippines that do not reach western Malaysia. While there are some "Australian" types in western Malaysia, these are few indeed when compared with the same element in the Philippine flora. In general, the generic distribution in Malaysia as a whole confirms the conclusions that may be drawn from a study of the distribution of the Dipterocarpaceae. It indicates a more-prominent or longer-prolonged connection between the Philippines and Borneo than between the Philippines and the islands to the south, after the breakup of the ancient Cretaceous continent. The Archipelago has received not only Asiatic elements (p. 83) now absent in Malaysia, but also numerous contributions from western Malaysia that could not reach eastern Malaysia on account of physical barriers in the nature of separating seas, and a striking but smaller series from eastern Malaysia that could not reach western Malaysia for lack of direct land connections. It is certain that there has been some intermigration between Borneo in western Malaysia through the Philippines to Celebes and the Moluccas, and probably some through Java to Celebes, but direct land connections between two essential areas, Borneo and Celebes, have been absent.

Borneo, from a Philippine standpoint, is the most interesting part of western Malaysia, for through Borneo most of the western Malaysian elements have reached the Philippines. There are some cases where individual species are at present known only from Java and the Philippines, Sumatra and the Philippines, or the Malay Peninsula and the Philippines, but such cases are few and unimportant; probably all such species will eventually be found in Borneo. There may have been some migration into the Philippines from Java via Celebes.

However, it is perfectly evident that there has been not only an early, probably pronounced, and long-continued connection with Borneo, but also a later, shorter one, or perhaps a series of shorter ones. The first migrants doubtless came in when a continental area existed in the Cretaceous Period, but these were probably all widely diffused Malaysian types. The dominant Dipterocarpaceae arrived in the Miocene or Pliocene, and preceding their arrival and with them came representatives of numerous other families, genera, and species, either widely spread forms or those characteristic of the flora of western Malaysia in general, but which did not reach eastern Malaysia. That there were later shorter periods of land connections through the Sulu group to the south and through Palawan to the north is indicated by the distribution of the genera and species in the Philippines that are known only from Borneo and the Philippines. Most of these must have been late emigrants, because as a rule they do not extend into the Philippines proper but chiefly through the Sulu Archipelago to the Zamboanga Peninsula to the south, and through Balabac and Palawan as far as the Calamian Islands to the north; there are also very slight evidences of late emigrants to western Mindoro and western Panay (see p. 90). This, the last migration of Bornean types, was in the Pleistocene and the Recent.

Zoölogists in general, basing their deductions on the present distribution of mammals, reptiles, birds, and insects, derive the Palawan-Calamian fauna from Borneo, and some * even claim that there has been no land connection between the Calamian-Palawan group and the Philippines proper since Palawan received its present fauna. These claims are not borne out by the Palawan flora, which presents a mixture of Bornean and Philippine types, presenting no more special alliances perhaps with Borneo than with the Philippines proper. In fact, the special Bornean elements known in the Palawan flora are distinctly weak in comparison with the remarkably strong Bornean alliances in its fauna. The presence of but one large indigenous mammal, the timarau, in Mindoro proves conclusively that at some time after the rise of the herbivorous mammals connections did exist between Mindoro and Borneo, for the closest ally of the timarau is not the anoa of Celebes, but a species that occurs in Borneo, congeneric with the timarau (see p. 125).

On account of the nature of the floristic alliances of the Philippines with the islands to the southwest, south, and southeast, and the striking fact that Australian types are more numerous and more strongly pronounced in the Philippines than in western Malaysia, it seems worth while to give this subject consideration. Why did the Australian types travel the longer distance, even to northern Luzon, and not the shorter distance to western Malaysia? Why have both eastern and western Malaysian types become dominant in the Philippines without having mutually

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* Everett, A. H., Remarks on the zoogeographical relationships of the island of Palawan and some adjacent islands, Proc. Zool. Soc. London (1889) 220–228, map.

invaded each other's territory to a greater extent than is the case, although they have mutually invaded the Philippines?

Molengraaff has already emphasized the curved lines of raised islands paralleling the curved lines of deep sea basins in eastern Malaysia. An examination of the map (Plate 1) showing the Malaysian deeps shows that most of these and their paralleling rows of elevated islands curve to the north, thus indicating in general north and south connections rather than continuous east and west ones.

Thus, through the manifest Sulu and Palawan bridges numerous Sundaland types reached the Philippines from Borneo; and through the northward curving lines of islands in the region of the Moluccas and Celebes we have strong evidences of former isthmuses connecting Mindanao with the islands to the south and southeast. It is merely necessary to call attention here to the manifest Sangi bridge between Mindanao and Celebes, and the possible Mindanao-Gilolo bridge through Talaur Island. There is no evidence that these southern connections from Mindanao were ever more than narrow isthmuses since the archipelagic stage was reached, and there is no evidence that even these isthmuses persisted for a great length of time, geologically speaking. Through these north and south connections, however, Australian, New Caledonian, and Papuan types have reached the Philippines, some via the Moluccas, some via Celebes, and at the same time certain Sundaland types extended their range to eastern Malaysia via the Philippines. The east and west land connections across the entire intermediate unstable insular region have apparently not existed, or at least have not been sufficiently strong or sufficiently prolonged to allow of many Australian types reaching western Malaysia, and this condition has of course had a marked influence on the intermigrations of eastern and western Malaysian types; in many cases the intermigrations, such as they have been, seem to have been by roundabout routes from Borneo via Mindanao and the Sangi Islands to Celebes, and probably also from Borneo to Celebes via Java and the lesser Sunda Islands, and vice versa.

CONCLUSIONS IN REFERENCE TO THE FLORISTIC RELATIONSHIPS OF THE PHILIPPINES

1. Malaysia as a whole, including the Philippines, was in the Cretaceous a part of the great Asiatic-Australian continent, and the Philippines was then apparently populated with widely dis-

tributed Malaysian types, some of which, at least as generic types, doubtless still exist in the present Archipelago.

2. Archipelagic conditions obtained in the late Cretaceous in the ep-Mesozoic interval, or in the Eocene, and since this time Australia and Asia have remained separate and the Philippines have remained essentially insular, although at times they have been connected to the southwest with Borneo, to the south with Celebes and the Moluccas, and perhaps also, directly or indirectly, with Gilolo and New Guinea.

3. The Pleistocene history of Malaysia and the Philippines clearly indicates that two stable continental areas existed, now approximately delimited by the Asiatic and Australian continental shelves. During this period the Sunda Islands were alternately connected and disconnected with Asia, and New Guinea had the same history in relation to Australia. The intermediate region between these two Pleistocene continents was insular, unstable, and subject to great elevations and depressions; it was probably of an insular character in the preceding epochs back to the early Tertiary. The Philippines, for the most part, forms a part of this unstable area.

4. Connections between the Philippines and Formosa and southeastern Asia were broken in the early Tertiary, the break being persistent since that period. This is verified by the great dissimilarity between Formosan and Philippine faunas and floras, and the fact that Australian and eastern Malaysian types which are strongly represented in the Philippines failed to reach Formosa, while the dominant dipterocarps of the Philippines are entirely absent. The Malaysian element in Formosa reached that island via Indo-China and southern China, when Formosa was a part of Asia.

5. There was a pre-Tertiary migration of Asiatic types into Malaysia via the Philippines, indicated by representatives of some thirty-four Asiatic genera in the Philippine flora that are otherwise unknown from Malaysia. The Asiatic-Philippine route to Malaysia was much less important than the Malay Peninsula-Sumatra route which, with interruptions, persisted through the Pleistocene and probably into the Recent.

6. The Philippine flora is overwhelmingly Malaysian and is made up of types from both western and eastern Malaysia. The general alliances are apparently stronger with the Sunda Islands than with the islands to the south and southeast, as shown by the fact that of the three hundred fifty-six western Malaysian genera not occurring in eastern Malaysia, two hundred eighteen,

or about 61 per cent, reached the Philippines, while of two hundred twenty-five eastern Malaysian genera that do not extend to western Malaysia fifty-six, or about 25 per cent, reached the Philippines.

7. Land connections between the Philippines and other parts of Malaysia have apparently not been other than isthmuses since the archipelagic condition was attained. The Palawan and Sulu bridges connecting the Archipelago with Borneo must have been strongly pronounced or greatly prolonged to allow the migration of the dominant western Malaysian types into the Philippines. These connections were later broken, allowing later migrations into the Palawan-Calamian group to the north which failed to pass Mindoro Strait. The Palawan-Calamian group in the Pleistocene formed a part of Borneo, but was not then connected with the Philippines.

8. Land connections between the Philippines and the islands to the south and southeast of the Archipelago have never been more than narrow isthmuses since the breakup of the Cretaceous continent. These connections have not been so pronounced or so long continued as was the case with the Bornean connections.

9. The general north and south connections made it possible for both eastern and western Malaysian types to reach the Philippines, but inhibited their east and west distribution in the Archipelago as a whole. Thus, a considerable number of Australian, New Caledonian, and Papuan types have traveled the longer distance into the Philippines, while very few reached the Sunda Islands, and many western Malaysian types extended northward into the Philippines that failed to reach eastern Malaysia.

10. Australian types in the Philippine flora are more numerous and more strongly pronounced than are similar types in western Malaysia. This is explainable by the geologic history of the intermediate insular area between eastern and western Malaysia.

11. In considering Malaysia as a whole it is clear that two secondary centers of origin and distribution have been established since the breakup of the Cretaceous continental area. One of these is composed of the Sunda Islands, or Sundaland; the other is New Guinea, or Papualand.

12. The intermediate insular area between Sundaland and Papualand is approximately delimited by Wallace's Line to the west and Weber's Line to the east. Neither is an absolute biogeographic boundary, but they may have approximately equal values. Both are due to fundamental geologic conditions,

being respectively the western and eastern boundaries of an unstable, orogenetically active, insular area where it impinges on the old stable continental areas to the west and to the east.

13. The fauna and the flora of this unstable insular area are to a large degree made up of the original Cretaceous and possibly early Tertiary relic forms plus infiltrations from both Sundaland and Papualand. In this region Asiatic types rapidly decrease east of Macassar Strait, and Australian types decrease with equal rapidity west of New Guinea, results to be logically expected in view of the geologic history of this unstable insular region.

14. The indicated geographic alliances of the Philippine flora are in close conformity with the faunistic alliances, and both conform remarkably to the geologic history of Malaysia of which the Philippines forms a part.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF PHILIPPINE BOTANY

The following bibliography is an attempt to place in convenient form for consultation, under authors, the titles (approximating 1,700) appertaining to Philippine botany, from the earliest publication in which Philippine plants are described (Clusius, 1601) to 1925. It is realized that the list is not complete, but it does contain most of the titles and all of the more important ones.

Generally speaking, only the titles of publications are included in which Philippine plants are mentioned or described. It is, of course, fully realized that in studying the Philippine flora one must take into consideration the great mass of published data on the flora of the entire Indo-Malaysian region, as well as of China, Formosa, Polynesia, and Australia. However, the bibliographic list is not intended to cover the publications appertaining to this vast region. Exceptionally, titles of publications have been admitted which contain no direct references to the Philippines, but which are absolutely essential to the student of the Philippine flora on account of the original descriptions they contain of species that extend to the Archipelago. Blume's Bijdragen may be mentioned as an example of this class. Classical works like Hooker's monumental Flora of British India have also been included on account of the vast amount of descriptive data therein available, although references to the Philippines are in the main confined to mention of the Archipelago in the geographic distribution of various species.

Nearly all of the papers listed in the following bibliography have been examined by me during the course of the preparation of this enumeration of Philippine plants, or in the years spent previous to its inception in my studies on the Philippine flora. Most of them are represented in the library of the Bureau of Science. It is only occasionally that the bibliographic data have, of necessity, been drawn from other than the original sources. The list is incomplete in certain respects, as in some cases, working in Manila, I have not had access to original sources, and so have not been able to determine the exact titles of certain papers which are known to contain descriptions of, or references to, Philippine plants.

In 1903, shortly after commencing botanical investigations in the Philippines, work was initiated on the preparation of a card-catalogue index to all published references to Philippine species of plants. As various publications were indexed, the corresponding bibliographic data were compiled, and these data have served as the basis of the present bibliography. In connection with this work a series of papers, containing several hundred titles on the bibliography of Philippine plants, was published by me,* but pressure of other work and more-important matters demanding attention led to the discontinuance of the series in 1910. In this series abstracts were included, and many reductions of species were indicated. The extent of the present bibliography has obliged me to abandon the abstract feature, so that, in general, merely the authors, titles, and references to places of publication have been given.

In connection with my enumeration of Bornean plants † I prepared and published in a preceding paper,‡ a corresponding bibliography of Bornean botany. The Bornean list of entries contains 556 titles contrasted with about 1,700 in the Philippine list. There are two reasons for the great difference between the Bornean and Philippine lists; first, that references to the Philippines are found in botanical literature as early as 1601, whereas references to Borneo, with one or two exceptions, do not appear before 1839, and very few even before 1850; and, second, that the Philippine flora has been much more extensively and intensively studied than has the Bornean.

I have also done a considerable amount of bibliographic work on the botanical literature of Polynesia; the number of titles approximates 1,300,§ and references to Polynesian botany scarcely appear in botanical literature before the last fourth of the eighteenth century.

The Philippines were colonized at a very early date in European colonial history, but Borneo was very little known before the middle of the nineteenth century and no European colonies or permanent trading stations were established there at an early date as was the case with Malacca, Java, Sumatra, the Moluccas, and the Philippines. In Polynesia no permanent European colonies were established until well into the nineteenth century, although many of the islands were visited and explored by various scientific exploring expeditions in the last fourth of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth centuries. The controlling factor in all cases has been European contacts, and where these have been longest and strongest, generally speaking the most complete biologic data are available.

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* Merrill, E. D., Index to Philippine botanical literature, Philip. Journ. Sci. **2** (1907) Bot. 241–250, 345–349, 437–439; **3** (1908) Bot. 87–94; **4** (1909) Bot. 677–685; **5** (1910) Bot. 259–266.

† Merrill, E. D., A bibliographic enumeration of Bornean plants, Journ. Straits Branch Roy. As. Soc. Extra Number (1921) 1–637.

‡ Merrill, E. D., A contribution to the bibliography of the botany of Borneo, Sarawak Mus. Journ. **2** (1915) 99–136.

§ Merrill, E. D., A bibliography of Polynesian botany, Bishop Mus. Bull. **13** (1924) 1–68.

It is a self-evident fact that any individual who commences the study of any particular branch of natural science, must first master the literature of his particular field. Therefore, with the hope that I may ease the task for my successors, this bibliography has been prepared. Without such bibliographic data as those here presented, each individual must expend an enormous amount of time and energy in merely searching for published information appertaining to his subject, and the magnitude of the task may well discourage even the most optimistic and enthusiastic research man, especially the beginner. The very magnitude of the appended bibliography may even discourage some would-be research men in botany, but they should realize how much more difficult would be the task without this bibliographic guide.

As noted above, it is not contended that this bibliography is complete; the task of checking out the last reference is an almost unending one. However, this contribution, taken in conjunction with standard works on botanical bibliography, should greatly lighten the task of the botanist concerned with the study of the Philippine and Malaysian floras. Supplementary data are to be sought in such standard works as Pritzel's Thesaurus Literaturae Botanicae; Jackson's Guide to the Literature of Botany; Index Kewensis; Rehder's Bradley Bibliography; The International Catalogue of Scientific Literature; Just's Botanischer Jahresbericht; the Botanisches Centralblatt; and Botanical Abstracts; for the lower groups of plants De Toni's Sylloge Algarum for the algae; Saccardo's Sylloge Fungorum for the fungi; Zahlbruckner's Catalogus Lichenum Universalis for the lichens; Stephani's Species Hepaticarum for the hepatics; Padis's Index Muscorum for the mosses; and Christensen's Index Filicum for the ferns; and for all groups to the corresponding treatments in Engler and Prantl's Die Natürlichen Pflanzenfamilien.

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Balanophoraceae: in Perkins, Frag. Fl. Philip. (1905) 169.
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See also Warner and Williams.

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Pinanga maculata Porte. *Curt. Bot. Mag.* IV 1 (1905) *t. 8011.*

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Some recently collected Philippine fungi. *Philip. Journ. Sci.* 12 (1917) *Bot.* 361–380; II, 13 (1918) 361–384.

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Systematisches Verzeichniss der im indischen Archipel in den Jahren 1842–1848 gesammelten sowie der aus Japan empfangenen Pflanzen 1 (1854) 1–160, *t. 1;* 2 (1855) 1–67.

CORRECTIONS AND ADDITIONS TO THE ENUMERATION

VOLUME 1

Page 1, under **Cycas** Linnaeus, add:

Cycas chamberlainii Brown & Kienholz in Philip. Journn. Sci. **26** (1925) 47, *t. 1, 2, f. 1.*

Luzon (Pampanga), *B. S. 42539 Brown & Kienholz.*

In primary forests, altitude about 700 m. Endemic.

Page 41, **Arthraxon hispidus** (Thunb.) Merr. becomes:

Arthraxon hispidus (Thunb.) Makino in Bot. Mag. Tokyo **26** (July, 1912) 214; Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 7 (September, 1912) Bot. 229.

Page 84, to the synonymy of **Chloris tener** (Presl) Scribn., add:

Chloris ridleyi Hack. in Oester. Bot. Zeitschr. **52** (1902) 237.

Chloris obtusifolia Balansa in Journ. de Bot. 4 (1890) 166.

Eustachys obtusifolia A. Camus in Lecomte Fl. Gén. Indo-Chine **7** (1924) 541.

To the range of the species add: Malay Peninsula and New Guinea.

Page 85, CHLORIS INFLATA Link.

An examination of the type of this hitherto doubtful species, in the Berlin Herbarium, shows it to be a synonym of **Chloris barbata** (Linn.) Sw., page 84. The type was undoubtedly from the Philippines, certainly not from California.

Page 116, to the synonymy of **Fuirena umbellata** Rottb., add:

Fuirena philippinensis Gandoger in Bull. Soc. Bot. France **66** (1919) 297.

Page 123, to the synonymy of **Fimbristylis fusca** (Nees) Benth. ex C. B. Clarke, add:

Mariscus fallax Fernald in Rhodora **25** (1923) 53.

Page 128, to the synonymy of **Schoenus falcatus** R. Br., add:

Mariscus delicatus Fernald in Rhodora **25** (1923) 53.

Page 129, to the synonymy of **Cladium distichum** C. B. Clarke, add:

Mariscus distichus Fernald in Rhodora **25** (1923) 53.

Page 129, to the synonymy of **Cladium falcatum** (Nees) C. B. Clarke, add:

Mariscus falcatus Fernald in Rhodora **25** (1923) 53.

Page 129, to the synonymy of **Cladium latifolium** Merr., add:

Mariscus platyphyllus Fernald in Rhodora **25** (1923) 54.

Page 129, to the synonymy of **Cladium philippinense** Merr., add:

Mariscus geniculatus Fernald in Rhodora **25** (1923) 53.

Page 182, to the synonymy of **Schismatoglottis latifolia** var. **viridis** Engl., add:
Schismatoglottis plurivenia v. A. v. R. in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 4 (1922) 209.

Page 216, after **Dioscorea divaricata** Blanco, add:
Dioscorea echinata Knuth in Engl. Pflanzenreich 87 (1924) 148.
Luzon (Benguet, Bataan), *Merrill 7683, F. B. 69 Barnes.* Endemic.

Page 218, to the synonymy of **Dioscorea merrillii** Prain & Burkill, add:
Dioscorea cirrhosa Knuth in Engl. Pflanzenreich 87 (1924) 288, quoad Philip., non Lour.

Page 218, after **Dioscorea merrillii** Prain & Burkill, add:
Dioscorea mindanaensis Knuth in Engl. Pflanzenreich 87 (1924) 271.
Mindanao (Davao), *Warburg 14611.* Endemic.

Page 218, after **Dioscorea nummularia** Lam., add:
Dioscorea oxyphylla Knuth in Engl. Pflanzenreich 87 (1924) 269.
Luzon (Tayabas), *Warburg 11688, 12929.* Endemic.

Page 218, after **Dioscorea nummularia** var. **glauca** Prain & Burkill, add:
Dioscorea palawana Prain & Burkill in Kew Bull. (1925) 59.
Palawan, *Merrill 9584.* Endemic.

Page 219, after **Dioscorea peperoides** Prain & Burkill, add:
Dioscorea polyphylla Knuth in Engl. Pflanzenreich 87 (1924) 148.
Luzon (Rizal), *F. B. 3376 Ahern's collector.* Endemic.

Page 219, after **Dioscorea soror** Prain & Burkill, add:
Dioscorea wilkesii Uline ex Knuth in Engl. Pflanzenreich 87 (1924) 271.
Luzon (Laguna, Los Baños), *Wilkes Expedition.* Endemic.

Page 220, before **Stenomeris wallisii** Taubert, add:
Stenomeris mindanaensis Knuth in Engl. Pflanzenreich 87 (1924) 345.
Mindanao (Agusan), *Merrill 7301.* Borneo.

VOLUME 2

Page 226, **Eriobotrya ambigua** Merr. becomes:
Stranvaesia ambigua (Merr.) Nakai in Journ. Arnold Arboretum 5 (1924) 72.

Page 226, under **Eriobotrya** Lindley, add:
Eriobotrya acuminatissima Nakai in Journ. Arnold Arboretum 5 (1924) 71.
Photinia luzoniensis var. *acuminatissima* Merr. in herb.
Panay *B. S. 35622 Martelino & Edaño.* Endemic.

Page 226, **Photinia luzonensis** Merr. becomes:
Eriobotrya luzonensis (Merr.) Nakai in Journ. Arnold Arboretum 5 (1924) 69.

Page 236, to the synonymy of **Angelisia splendens**, add:
Coccomelia nitida Ridl. in Journ. Straits Branch Roy As. Soc. 82 (1920) 183; Fl. Mal. Penin. 1 (1922) 671.

Page 284, to the synonymy of **Desmodium auriculatum** DC., add:
Pteroloma pseudotriquetrum DC. X ? *D. triquetrum* DC.; Schindler in Fedde Repert. 20 (1924) 273.

Page 284, under **Desmodium cumingianum**, change:
Dendrobium cumingianum to *Dendrolobium cumingianum* and to this reference, add: Schindler in Fedde Repert. 20 (1924) 278.

Page 285, to the synonymy of **Desmodium gyrans** (Linn. f.) DC., add:
Codariocalyx gyrans Hassk. in Flora 25 (1842) Beibl. 2: 49, 62; Schindler in Fedde Repert. 20 (1924) 280.

Page 285, to the synonymy of **Desmodium gyroides** (Roxb.) DC., add:
Codariocalyx gyroides Hassk. in Flora 25 (1842) Beibl. 2: 49, 62; Schindler in Fedde Repert. 20 (1924) 281.

Page 287, to the synonymy of **Desmodium ormocarpoides** DC., add:
Hanslia adhaerens Schindler in Fedde Repert. 20 (1924) 277.

Page 288, to the synonymy of **Desmodium quinquepetalum** (Blanco) Merr., add:
Dendrolobium quinquepetalum Schindler in Fedde Repert. 20 (1924) 278.

Page 313, **Canavalia rosea** (Sw.) DC.

Piper, Contr. U. S. Nat. Herb. 20 (1925) 564, has conclusively shown that the oldest valid specific name for this pantropic strand plant is **Canavalia maritima** (Aubl. Thouars in Desv. Journ. de Bot. 1 (1813) 80, based on *Dolichos maritimus* Aubl. Pl. Guian. Franc. (1775) 765.

Page 337, to the synonymy of **Clausena anisum-olens** (Blanco) Merr., add:
Clausena anisodora M. Roem. Syn. 1 (1846) 46.

Page 419, to the synonymy of **Cleistanthus angustifolius** Merr., add:
Paracleisthus angustifolius Gagnep. in Bull. Soc. Bot. France 70 (1923) 499.

Page 419, to the synonymy of **Cleistanthus blancoi** Rolfe, add:
Paracleisthus blancoi Gagnep. in Bull. Soc. Bot. France 70 (1923) 419.

Page 422, to the synonymy of **Cleistanthus robinsonii** Elm., add:
Paracleisthus robinsonii Gagnep. in Bull. Soc. Bot. France 70 (1923) 499.

Page 422, to the synonymy of **Cleistanthus venosus** C. B. Rob., add:
Paracleisthus venosus Gagnep. in Bull. Soc. Bot. France 70 (1923) 499.

Page 444, **Acalypha amentacea** Roxb.

Pax & Hoffm., in Engl. Pflanzenreich 85 (1924) 152, retain the form here intended as **Acalypha stipulacea** Klotz., confining the species to the Philippines. Roxburgh's species is referred to *Acalypha fruticosa* Forsk.

Page 445, **Acalypha caturus** Blume.

Pax and Hoffm., in Engl. Pflanzenreich 85 (1924) 141, retain the Philippine form as a distinct endemic species under the name **Acalypha cardiophylla** Merr.

Page 446, after **Acalypha indica** Linn., add:

Acalypha luzonica Pax & Hoffm. in Engl. Pflanzenreich 85 (1924) 153.

Luzon (Abra, Benguet, Bataan), *B. S. 7198 Ramos, F. B. 2640 Meyer, 18216 Curran, Merritt, & Zschokke.* Endemic.

Acalypha meyeri Pax & Hoffm. in Engl. Pflanzenreich **85** (1924) 165.
Luzon (Bataan), *F. B. 2648, 2847* Meyer. Endemic.

Acalypha warburgii Pax & Hoffm. in Engl. Pflanzenreich **85** (1924) 155.
Luzon (Tayabas), *Warburg 13135.* Endemic.

Page 488, under **Turpinia** Ventenat, add:

Turpinia lucida Nakai in Journ. Arnold Arboretum **5** (1924) 80.
Luzon (Cavite, Cagayan), Palawan, *B. S. 22585 Ramos & Deroy, Adduru 273, Elmer 13122.* Endemic.

Page 525, **Alphitonia zizyphoides** (Spreng.) A. Gray.

Braid, in his recent revision of *Alphitonia*, retains *A. zizyphoides* A. Gray as a strictly Polynesian species, *A. excelsa* Reiss. as a strictly Australian one, and *A. moluccana* Teysm. & Binn. as a Moluccan one; and retains the Philippine-Bornean form as a distinct species, **Alphitonia philippinensis** Braid in Kew Bull. (1925) 183.

VOLUME 3

Page 45, **Bombax** Linnaeus.

Bakhuizen van den Brink, Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III **6** (1924) 174–186, retains the Linnean genus as strictly American, adopting the generic term **Gossampinus** Hamilton for the Oriental forms, and for **Bombax ceiba** of all Oriental authors (non Linn.) adopts the name **Gossampinus heptaphylla** (Houtt.) Bakh. op. cit. 189.

Page 117, **Adenia** Forskål.

Hallier f., Meded. Rijks Herb. **42** (1922) 11, credits *Adenia cordifolia* (Blume) Engl. to the Philippines on the basis of *Merrill 8219*, from Zamboanga Province, Mindanao, and Meded. Rijks Herb. **42** (1922) 8, mentions *Elmer 10091* from Negros and *Bur. Sci. 11068 Ramos* from Cebu as belonging in the group with *Adenia cardiophylla* (Mast.) Engl. All specimens cited to be compared with *Adenia zucca* (Blanco) Merr.

Page 118, **Passiflora philippinensis** Elm.

This is reduced by Hallier f., Meded. Rijks Herb. **42** (1922) 6, to **Passiflora horsfieldii** Blume Rumphia **1** (1835) 170, *t. 52.* Java to Bali and Flores, a variety in Celebes.

Page 130, to the synonymy of **Gyrinopsis brachyantha** Merr., add:
Aquilaria brachyantha Hall. f. in Meded. Rijks Herb. **44** (1922) 16.

Page 130, to the synonymy of **Gyrinopsis citrinaecarpa** Elm., add:
Aquilaria citrinaecarpa Hall. f. in Meded. Rijks Herb. **44** (1922) 18.

Page 131, to the synonymy of **Gyrinopsis cumingiana** Decne., add:
Aquilaria cumingiana Hall. f. in Meded. Rijks Herb. **44** (1922) 17.
Aquilaria pubescens Hall. f. in Meded. Rijks Herb. **44** (1922) 18.
Aquilaria decemcostata Hall. f. Meded. Rijks Herb. **44** (1922) 17.

Page 131, to the synonymy of **Gyrinopsis urdanetensis** Elm., add:
Aquilaria urdanetensis Hall. f. in Meded. Rijks Herb. **44** (1922) 17.

Page 132, **Macgregorianthus** Merrill.

Hallier f., Meded. Rijks Herb. **44** (1922) 26, reduces this genus to **Enkleia** Griffith, *Macgregorianthus paniculatus* Merr. becoming **Enkleia paniculata** (Merr.) Hall. f.

Page 198, to the synonymy of **Medinilla luzonensis** Hook. f., add:
Dactyliota luzonensis Ridl. in Kew Bull. (1925) 82.

Page 276, **Madhuca fusicarpa** (Elm.) Merr.
H. J. Lam, in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 172, reduces this to **Madhuca burckiana** (Koord.) H. J. Lam, of Celebes.

Page 277, **Madhuca monticola** Merr.
H. J. Lam, in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 129, refers the type, *Merrill 9622*, with doubt, to *Ganua boerlageana* Pierre, but Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 180, admits *Madhuca monticola* as a valid species of Madhuca.

Page 278, **Madhuca ramiflora** Merr. becomes:
Diploknema ramiflora (Merr.) H. J. Lam. in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 184, *f. 52.*

Page 278, before **Palaquium ahernianum** Merr., add:
Palaquium abundantiflorum H. J. Lam in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 61, *f. 11.*

Luzon (Bataan), *F. B. 168 Barnes.* In primary forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

Page 279, **Palaquium celebicum** Burck.
Reduced by H. J. Lam, Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 279, to **Palaquium obovatum** (Griff.) Engl.

Page 280, to the synonymy of **Palaquium formosanum** Hay., add:
Palaquium paucivenosum H. J. Lam in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 101, *f. 29.*

Page 282, to the synonymy of **Palaquium polyandrum** C. B. Rob., add:
Palaquium lepidotum C. B. Rob. ex H. J. Lam in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 76.

Page 283, after **Palaquium retusum** Merr., add:
Palaquium sorsogonense Elm. ex H. J. Lam in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 65, *f. 13.*

Luzon (Camarines, Sorsogon), *Elmer 16714, B. S. 33907 Ramos & Edaño.* In forests. Endemic.

Page 283, **Palaquium retusum** Merr. (non Becc.) becomes:
Palaquium globosum H. J. Lam in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 76.

Page 284, **Sideroxylon** Dillenius.
H. J. Lam, Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 193, adopts the generic name **Planchonella** Pierre for most of the Malaysian species placed in *Sideroxylon.* To **Planchonella firma** Dubard he reduces *Sideroxylon angustifolium* Merr., *S. fragrans* Elm., *S. gitingense* Elm., *S. foxworthyi* Elm., and *S. urdanetense* Elm.

Page 285, **Sideroxylon duclitan** Blanco.
A synonym of **Sideroxylon nitidum** Blume (*Planchonella nitida* Dubard); see H. J. Lam in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 205. The species is widely distributed in Malaysia.

Page 285, **Sideroxylon ferrugineum** Hook. & Arn.
H. J. Lam, in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 209, in adopting the name *Planchonella obovata* (R. Br.) H. J. Lam (*Sersalisia obovata* R. Br.)

reduces the following Philippine species to it: *Sideroxylon ahernianum* Merr., *S. merrillii* (Dubard) Merr., *S. philippense* (Dubard) Merr., *S. apoense* Elm., and *S. acuminatum* Elm. The oldest valid name for this collective species under *Sideroxylon* is probably *S. argenteum* Spreng.

Page 286, to the synonymy of **Sideroxylon macranthum** Merr., add:
Lucuma macrantha H. J. Lam in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 225.

Page 286, to the synonymy of **Sideroxylon luzoniense** Merr., add:
Lucuma luzoniensis H. J. Lam in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 227. The species extends to Bali, Kangean, and Sulabesi, fide Lam l. c.

Page 286, **Sideroxylon pittosporifolium** Elm.

This is reduced by H. J. Lam, Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 227, to *Sideroxylon oxyedrum* Miq. (*Planchonella oxyedra* Dubard), a species extending from Sumatra and Java to Celebes, Amboina, and the small islands off the western end of New Guinea.

Page 286, after **Sideroxylon merrillii** (Dubard) Merr., add:
Sideroxylon mindanaense Merr. ex H. J. Lam, in Bull. Jard Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 207, *f. 57.*
Planchonella mindanaensis H. J. Lam, Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 207.
Mindanao (Lanao), *Clemens 1126, 1015.* Endemic.

Page 287, to the synonymy of **Sideroxylon velutinum** Elm., add:
Planchonella velutina H. J. Lam in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 215.
Sideroxylon bulusanense Elm. ex H. J. Lam, Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 215, in syn.

Page 287, to the synonymy of **Sideroxylon villamilii** Merr., add:
Lucuma dolichosperma H. J. Lam in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 223, *f. 60.*
Planchonella petaloides H. J. Lam, Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 196, saltem quoad Philip. (*Barnes 51*).

Page 288, to the synonymy of **Mimusops calophylloides** Merr., add:
Manilkara ? calophylloides H. J. Lam in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 7 (1925) 240.

Page 314, **Fagraea auriculata** Jack.

Cammerloher, in Bull. Jard. Bot. Buitenz. III 5 (1923) 323, places *Merrill 7254* under *Fagraea bracteosa* Camerrl., which he describes as new, from Celebesian and Palawan material. If it is to be retained as distinct from *F. auriculata* Jack, then it should be compared with *F. jackii* Elm. and *F. epiphytica* Elm.

Page 374, **Ehretia acuminata** R. Br.

Nakai, in Journ. Arnold Arboretum 5 (1924) 37, restricts *Ehretia acuminata* R. Br. to Australia, and retains the Philippine form as an endemic one, **Ehretia polyantha** A. DC.

Page 428, **Solanum sparsiflorum** Elm.

A synonym of **Solanum cyanocarphium** Blume, Bijdr. (1925) 700 (*Solanum sarmentosum* Nees in Trans. Linn. Soc. 17 (1837) 58. Malay Peninsula to Java and Borneo.

Page 482.

Eliminate **Pseuderanthemum pulchellum** (Hort.) Merr. and the synonym *Eranthemum pulchellum* Hort. The correct name for the species here considered is **Pseuderanthemum bicolor** (Schrank) Radlk.; see L. H. Bailey, Gent. Herb. 1 (1923) 130.

Page 528, **Randia pulcherrima** Merr.

Hallier f., Recueil Trav. Bot. Néerland. 15 (1918) 48, states that this is the same as **Randia gynopachys** (Blume) Boerl. Java, Celebes.

Page 528, **Randia umbellata** Elm.

Hallier f., Recueil Trav. Bot. Néerland. 15 (1918) 53, states that this is the same as **Randia boerlagei** Koord. & Val., Bijdr. Boomsoort. Java 8 (1902) 269; Valeton in Ic. Bogor. 3 (1907) 115, t. 247, of which the following are also synonyms: *Randia binata* King & Gamble (1903), *Gynopachys acuminata* Blume (1826), and *Randia acuminata* Boerl. (1891) non Benth. Malay Peninsula, Sumatra, Java, and Borneo.

Page 615.

The oldest name for the cultigen **Chrysanthemum sinense** Sabine is **C. morifolium** Ram. in Journ. Hist. Nat. 2 (1792) 240, fide L. H. Bailey, Gent. Herb. 1 (1923) 131.

The descriptions of the following species were published* after volumes 1 to 3 of this Enumeration were issued, but before the work on volume 4 was finished. They are accordingly listed here.—E. D. M.

PANDANACEAE

Pandanus depauperatus Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 448.

Busuanga, *B. S. 41230 Ramos.* Along streams at low altitudes. Endemic.

Pandanus calamianensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 448.

Busuanga, *B. S. 41178 Ramos.* Along small streams at low altitudes. Endemic.

Pandanus busuangaensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 449.

Busuanga, *B. S. 41224 Ramos,* near the seashore. Endemic.

Pandanus paracalensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 450.

Luzon (Camarines Norte), *B. S. 33687 Ramos & Edaño.* Along small streams in forests. Endemic.

ARACEAE

Raphidophora palawanensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 451.

Palawan, *Merrill 11570.* In primary forest at low altitudes. Endemic.

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* Merrill, E. D., Additions to our knowledge of the Philippine flora, I, Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 447–496.

Raphidophora sylvestris (Blume) Engl. in DC. Monog. Phan. 2 (1879) 239; Pflanzenreich 37 (1908) 22, *f. 6;* Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 452.

Palawan, *B. S. 15527 Fénix.* In forests. Borneo, Java, New Guinea.

Aglaonema stenophyllum Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 452.

Luzon (Tayabas), Biliran, Catanduanes, Samar, *B. S. 25413 Yates, 18844 McGregor, 30471, 24141 Ramos.* In primary forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

MENISPERMACEAE

Cyclea cauliflora Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 452.

Leyte, *B. S. 41512 Ramos.* In ravines. Endemic.

ANONACEAE

Goniothalamus mindorensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 453.

Mindoro, *B. S. 41017 Ramos.* On forested slopes. Endemic.

Mitrephora caudata Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 454.

Palawan, *B. S. 809, 886 Foxworthy, F. B. 29112 Foxworthy, 29129 Cenabre, Elmer 12787, 13012.* In forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

Oxymitra mindorensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 455.

Mindoro, *B. S. 41108 Ramos.* In primary forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

Uvaria goloensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 456.

Golo, *Merrill 11551.* On serpentine bluffs and in thickets at low altitudes. Endemic.

RUTACEAE

Clausena citriodora Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 458.

Leyte, *Gallardo.* Endemic.

Triphasia grandifolia Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 458.

Mindoro, *B. S. 40822 Ramos.* In forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

MELIACEAE

Amoora mindorensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 459.

Mindoro, *B. S. 40860 Ramos.* In primary forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

Dysoxylum angustifoliolum Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 460.

Palawan, *F. B. 28910 Cenabre, Baldemor, & Aduviso.* In forests. Endemic.

Dysoxylum brachybotrys Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 461.

Mindanao (Zamboanga), *Merrill 11632, B. S. 37012 Ramos & Edaño, F. B. 26123 Franco.* In primary forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

EUPHORBIACEAE

Glochidion lancilimbum Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 462.

Mindanao (Zamboanga), *B. S. 37401 Ramos & Edaño.* In secondary forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

Glochidion cenabrei Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 463.

Palawan, *F. B. 29174 Cenabre.* In forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

Glochidion woodii Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 465.
Mindanao (Misamis, Lanao, Zamboanga, Davao), *Merrill 11613, Clemens 302, B. S. 15843 Fénix, F. B. 28321 Fernando, 28195 Elumir.* In thickets. Endemic.

Phyllanthus anisophyllaeoides Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 465.
Mindoro, *B. S. 40585 Ramos & Edaño.* In forests, altitude 1,000 m. Endemic.

CELASTRACEAE

Glyptopetalum palawanense Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 466.
Palawan, *F. B. 29181 Cenabre.* In primary forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

ICACINACEAE

Mappia Jacquin

Mappia philippinensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 467.
Mindanao (Bukidnon), *B. S. 24941 Fénix.* On slopes near streams. Endemic.

AQUIFOLIACEAE

Ilex permicrophylla Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 468.
Luzon (Benguet), *B. S. 40311, 40516 Ramos & Edaño.* In the mossy forest, altitude 2,100 m. Endemic.

SAPINDACEAE

Allophylus lopezii Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 469.
Busuanga, *B. S. 41387 Lopez.* In forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

ELAEOCARPACEAE

Elaeocarpus halconensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 470.
Mindoro, *B. S. 40583 Ramos & Edaño.* In primary forests, altitude 1,000 m.

DILLENIACEAE

Saurauia zamboangensis Merr. in Philip Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 471.
Mindanao (Zamboanga), *B. S. 36607 Ramos & Edaño.* In forests at medium altitudes. Endemic.

GUTTIFERAE

Garcinia busuangaensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 472.
Busuanga, *B. S. 41243 Ramos.* In dry forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

Garcinia pacifica Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 473.
Luzon (Tayabas), *B. S. 28649 Ramos & Edaño.* In primary forests, altitude 300 m. Endemic.

Garcinia ituman Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 473.
Mindoro, Ambil, Panay, Bohol, *F. B. 22538 Mariano, 27056 Hirro, 25623 Medina, B. S. 35654 Martelino & Edaño.* On rocky forested slopes in limestone regions. Endemic.

Local names: Harras (P. Bis.); ituman (C. Bis.).

Garcinia whitfordii Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 474.
Mindanao (Zamboanga) *F. B. 9142 Whitford & Hutchinson, 2278, Miranda.* In primary forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

DIPTEROCARPACEAE

Shorea kalunti Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 475.
Mindanao (Zamboanga, Lanao, Davao), *F. B. 27701 Angeles & Selorio, 13294, 13902 Foxworthy, Demesa, & Villamil.* In primary forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

BEGONIACEAE

Begonia angilogensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 477.
Luzon (Rizal), *B. S. 40777 Ramos.* On forested slopes, altitude 1,200 m. Endemic.

Begonia woodii Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 478.
Palawan, *Merrill 11589.* In primary forests on cliffs. Endemic.

Begonia pinamalayensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 479.
Mindoro, *B. S. 40856 Ramos.* Along streams in forests. Endemic.

Begonia coronensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 480.
Coron, *B. S. 41164 Ramos.* On rocks and ledges in forests. Endemic.

Begonia zamboangensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 481.
Mindanao (Zamboanga), *B. S. 37231, 37371 Ramos & Edaño.* Along streams in forests. Endemic.

Begonia parvilimba Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 481.
Mindanao (Zamboanga), *B. S. 36936, 36933 Ramos & Edaño.* On rocks and ledges along small streams in forests. Endemic.

Begonia subprostrata Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 482.
Mindanao (Zamboanga), *B. S. 36977, 37222 Ramos & Edaño.* Along small streams in forests. Endemic.

ARALIACEAE

Schefflera angilogensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 483.
Luzon (Rizal), *B. S. 40748 Ramos.* On forested ridges, altitude 1,400 m. Endemic.

MYRSINACEAE

Ardisia alvarezii Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 484.
Babuyan Islands (Calayan). Luzon (Cagayan, Apayao), *F. B. 26644 Velasco, 21765 Barros, 7094 Klemme, 16850 Curran, 18435 Alvarez, B. S. 3182 Ramos, 28244, 28386 Fénix.* In forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

Discocalyx leytensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 485.
Leyte, *B. S. 41709 Edaño.* In primary forests. Endemic.

CORNACEAE

Mastixia crassifolia Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 486.
Luzon (Benguet), *B. S. 40377 Ramos & Edaño.* In the mossy forest, altitude about 2,000 m. Endemic.

EBENACEAE

Diospyros calcicola Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 487.

Coron, *B. S. 41167 Ramos.* In dry forests on limestone formation. Endemic.

CONVOLVULACEAE

Lettsomia Roxburgh

Lettsomia philippinensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 488.

Luzon (Laguna) *B. S. 10964, 23795 Ramos.* In primary forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

BIGNONIACEAE

Radermachera brachybotrys Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 489.

Leyte, *B. S. 41688 Edaño.* On slopes at medium altitudes. Endemic.

GESNERIACEAE

Didymocarpus Wallich

Didymocarpus woodii Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 489.

Palawan, *Merrill 11587.* On cliffs in primary forests at low altitudes. Endemic.

ACANTHACEAE

Hypoestes halconensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 490.

Mindoro, *B. S. 40715 Ramos & Edaño.* On forested slopes, altitude 1,000 m. Endemic.

CAPRIFOLIACEAE

Viburnum cornutidens Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 491.

Luzon (Benguet,) *B. S. 40309 Ramos & Edaño.* On forested slopes, altitude 1,800 m. Endemic.

RUBIACEAE

Prismatomeris obtusifolia Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 492.

Busuanga, Palawan, *B. S. 41193 Ramos, 21557 Escritor.* In thickets near the sea. Endemic.

Psychotria merrittii Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 493.

Mindoro, *B. S. 40599 Ramos & Edaño, F. B. 4365, 4396 Merritt.* On forested slopes, altitude about 1,400 m. Endemic.

Tymonius pachyphyllus Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 494.

Luzon (Rizal), *B. S. 40794, 42277 Ramos.* On forested slopes, altitude about 1,200 m. Endemic.

Wendlandia warburgii Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 495.

Luzon (Isabela), *Warburg 12016.* Endemic.

Williamsia mimica Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 26 (1925) 495.

Mindanao (Bukidnon), *B. S. 38790 Ramos & Edaño.* On forested slopes, altitude 1,000 m. Endemic.

The following species also were published * after volumes 1 to 3 of this Enumeration were issued, but before the work on volume 4 was finished. They are accordingly listed here.—E. D. M.

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* Merrill, E. D. New species of Philippine plants collected by A. Loher, Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 21–59.

URTICACEAE

Pilea loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 23.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12797.* Endemic.

LAURACEAE

Cinnamomum loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 23.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 14469.* Endemic.

Cryptocarya loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 24.
Luzon (Rizal) *Loher 12349, 12350.* Endemic.

LEGUMINOSAE

Bauhinia pachyphylla Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 25.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12978,* altitude about 1,400 m. Endemic.

RUTACEAE

Micromelum caudatum Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 26.
Luzon (Rizal, Tayabas), *Loher 12822, 12859, 13615, 14409.* Endemic.

Clausena loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 27.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12110, 13286, 14357.* Endemic.

MELIACEAE

Dysoxylum loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 28.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 14181.* Endemic.

POLYGALACEAE

Xanthophyllum loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 29.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 14978.* Endemic.

EUPHORBIACEAE

Gelonium stenophyllum Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 30.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12639, 12929, 13345, 15067.* Endemic.

Dimorphocalyx loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 30.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12467, 14847.* Endemic.

AQUIFOLIACEAE

Ilex loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 31.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 14144, 14255.* Endemic.

CELASTRACEAE

Kokoonia luzoniensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 32.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 13391, 12754.* Endemic.

Siphonodon pyriformis Merr. var. **parvifolius** Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 33.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12809.* Endemic.

STAPHYLEACEAE

Turpinia pachyphylla Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 33.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 14463.* Endemic.

Turpinia simplicifolia Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 34.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12756, 12772, 12992.* Endemic.

SAPINDACEAE

Harpullia arborea (Blanco) Radlk. var. **megalocarpa** Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 35.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 13273.*

RHAMNACEAE

Sageretia hamosa Brongn. in Ann. Sci. Nat. 10 (1826) 360; Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 35.
Luzon (Tayabas), *Loher 14009.* India to Formosa and Java.

DILLENIACEAE

Saurauia loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 36.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12073, 12300, 12666.* Endemic.

GUTTIFERAE

Garcinia loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 37.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12880, 14077.* Endemic.

FLACOURTIACEAE

Homalium obovatum Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 37.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12200, 12811, 12871, 14752.* Endemic.

Homalium polillense Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 38.
Polillo, *Loher 14535.* Endemic.

MYRTACEAE

Eugenia diospyrifolia Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 39.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 13307, 13328, 14879.* Endemic.

Eugenia cordatilimba Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 40.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12830, 14924.* Endemic.

Eugenia crassilimba Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 41.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 14208.* Endemic.

Eugenia megalophylla Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 43.
Luzon (Tayabas), *Loher 13596.* Endemic.

ERICACEAE

Vaccinium rizalense Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 43.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12150, 14979.* Endemic.

Diplycosia loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 44.
Luzon (Nueva Vizcaya), *Loher 13693.* Endemic.

MYRSINACEAE

Embelia loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 45.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 13162, 13845.* Endemic.

SAPOTACEAE

Palaquium elliptilimbum Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 46.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12170, 13867.* Endemic.

Palaquium loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 47.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12396, 13208.* Endemic.

OLEACEAE

Linociera phanerophlebia Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 48.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12930, 14138, 14220, 14222.* Endemic.

LOGANIACEAE

Fagraea loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 49.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12056, 12324, 13270, 14464.* Endemic.

APOCYNACEAE

Rauwolfia loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 50.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12500.* Endemic.

Parsonsia oblongifolia Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 50.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 13477.* Endemic.

Carruthersia axilliflora Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 51.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12351.* Endemic.

Melodinus lanceolatus Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 52.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 15057.* Endemic.

ASCLEPIADACEAE

Tylophora lancilimba Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 53.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 14834.* Endemic.

ACANTHACEAE

Gymnostachyum trichosepalum Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 54.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 13484.* Endemic.

Peristrophe caudatifolia Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 54.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12196.* Endemic.

RUBIACEAE

Pavetta loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 55.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12623, 13151, 13212, 14211.* Endemic.

Randia loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 56.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 13161, 12967.* Endemic.

Uncaria luzoniensis Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 57.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 14457.* Endemic.

Williamsia loheri Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 58.
Luzon (Rizal), *Loher 12309.* Endemic.

Williamsia stenophylla Merr. in Philip. Journ. Sci. 27 (1925) 59.
Luzon (Nueva Vizcaya) *Loher s. n.* Endemic.

ERRATA

VOLUME 1

Page 22, line 28, for *Scirpiodendron ghaeri* read *Scirpodendron ghaeri*

Page 25, line 39, for *Limnophyton obstusifolium* Miq. read *Lymnophyton obtusifolium* Miq.

Page 33, line 23, *for* Brongh. *read* Brongn.

Page 41, line 22, *for* Vizcaya, *read* Vizcaya),

Page 71, line 44, *for* Vor. *read* Var.

Page 75, lines 31 and 32, *for* **Chamaeraphis muricata** (Linn.) Merr. *read* **Chamaeraphis squarrosa** (Linn.) Merr., and for *Andropogon muricatus* Linn. read *Andropogon squarrosus* Linn.

Page 84, last line, *for* Hainan, Indo-China. *read* Hainan, Indo-China, Celebes, Ternate, Gilolo.

Page 132, line 10, for *Lipironia* read *Lepironia*

Page 187, line 27, *for* **Typhonium divarcatum** (Linn.) Decne. *read* **Typhonium divaricatum** (Linn.) Decne.

Page 198, line 42, for *Tradescantia critata* Linn. read *Tradescantia cristata* Linn.

Page 201, line 7, *for* Presl. *read* Presl

Page 215, line 36, *for* (Tag.), *read* (Tag.,

Page 277, line 21, *for* (Ames) Schltr. & Ames. *read* (Ames) Ames & Schltr.

VOLUME 2

Page 1, line 5, *for* Dicotyledonae *read* Dicotyledoneae

Page 8, line 31, *for* **Piper dipterocarpinum** C. CD. *read* **Piper dipterocarpinum** C. DC.

Page 71, line 23, *for* **Conocephalus suaveolens** Bume *read* **Conocephalus suaveolens** Blume

Page 108, line 41, for *parasiticis* read *parasiticus*

Page 151, line 27, *for* Fl.-Vill. *read* F.-Vill.

Page 191, line 44, for *Litsea verticillata* read *Litsea verticillata* Vidal

Page 207, line 8, *for* **Lepidium virginicum** Sp. *read* **Lepidium virginicum** Linn. Sp.

Page 207, line 37, *for* BRASSICA NIGRA KOCH; *read* BRASSICA NIGRA Koch;

Page 236, line 27, *for* **Parinariam** *read* **Parinarium**

Page 255, line 4, *for* Sbl., Tag.); *read* (Sbl., Tag.);

Page 296, line 4, for *Dalberia* read *Dalbergia*

Page 436, line 18, *for* **Mallotus-ricinoides** *read* **Mallotus ricinoides**

Page 524, line 5, *for* dúklap (Pang., Tag.); dúklap (Tag.); dukúlab (Tag.); *read* dúklap (Pang., Tag.); dukúlab (Tag.);

VOLUME 3

Page 8, line 13, for *Cayratia japonica* Gagnep read *Cayratia japonica* Gagnep.

Page 15, line 14, for *Elaeccarpus* read *Elaeocarpus*

Page 16, line 16, *for* Aug. DC. *read* A. DC.
Page 19, lines 15 and 23, *for* Aug. DC. *read* A. DC.
Page 20, line 9, *for* Aug. DC. *read* A. DC.
Page 154, line 1, *for* **Lumitzera** *read* **Lumnitzera**
Page 199, line 2, *for* bontanical *read* botanical
Page 240, line 6, for *C. involcecratum* Baill., read *C. involucratum* Baill.,
Page 262, line 27, for *A. jagori* read *A. jagorii*
Page 298, line 22, for *S. luzoniensis* read *S. luzonensis*
Page 302, line 18, for *luzoniensis* read *luzonensis*
Page 313, line 13, *for* tibanglan (Tag.); *read* tibanglan (Tag.).
Page 314, line 2, *for* Jack. *read* Jack
Page 319, line 26, for *Vallarsia* read *Villarsia*
Page 391, line 22, *for* Var. **cordata** Merr. *read* Var. **cordata** Merr. var nov.
Page 432, line 32, *for* LINDERBERGIA *read* LINDENBERGIA
Page 470, line 1, *for* **Hygrophila salifolia** *read* **Hygrophila salicifolia**
Page 492, line 31, *for* (var *brevipes* Valeton). *read* (var. *brevipes* Valeton).
Page 523, line 19 should follow line 20.
Page 545, line 14, for *Weberi* read *Webera*
Page 550, line 31, for *S. fulgens* read *I. fulgens*
Page 566, line 23, for *Lasinthus* read *Lasanthus*
Page 606, line 19, *for* Bume *read* Blume
Page 620, line 48, for *bobbiana* read *lobbiana*

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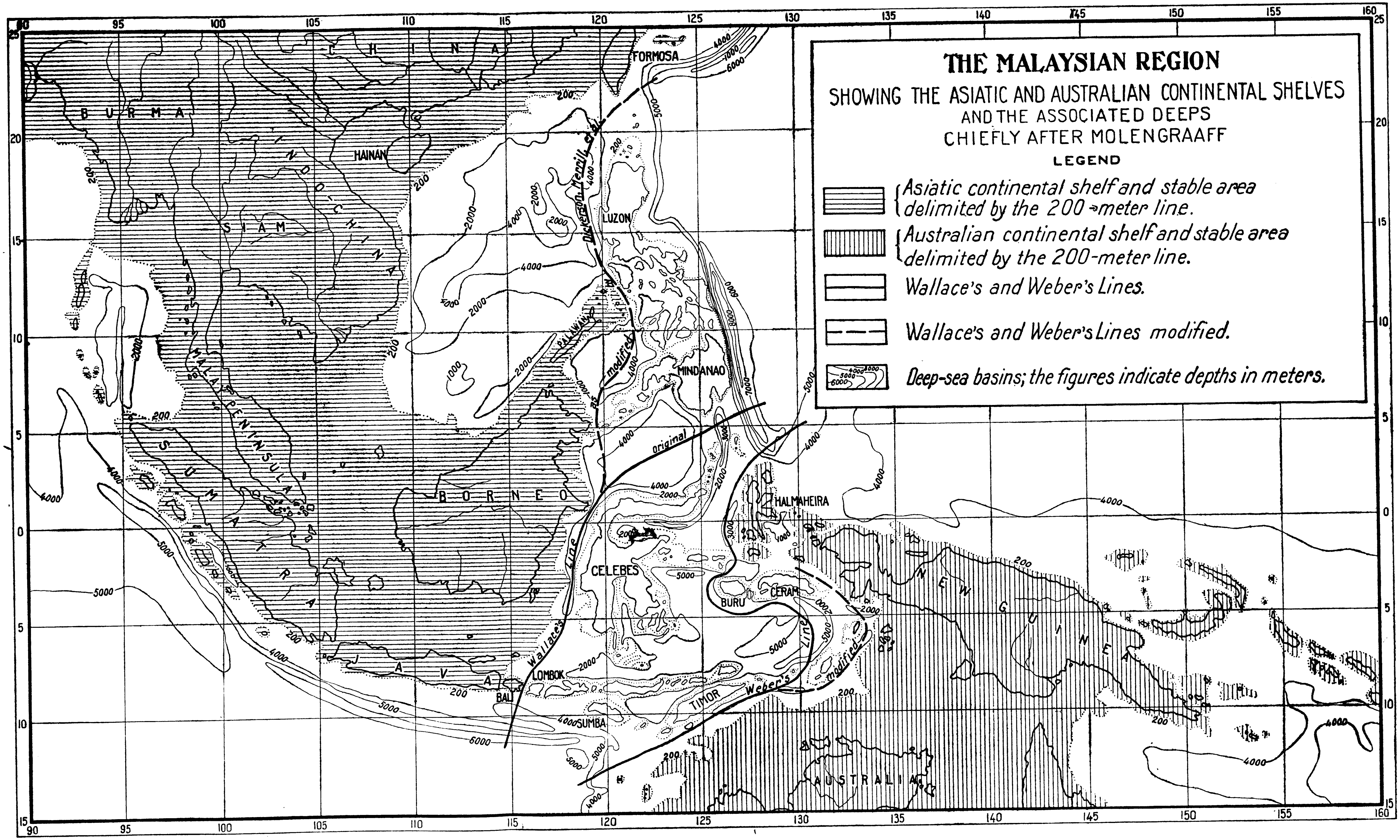

PLATE 1. THE MALAYSIAN REGION, SHOWING THE CONTINENTAL SHELVES AND ASSOCIATED DEEPS.

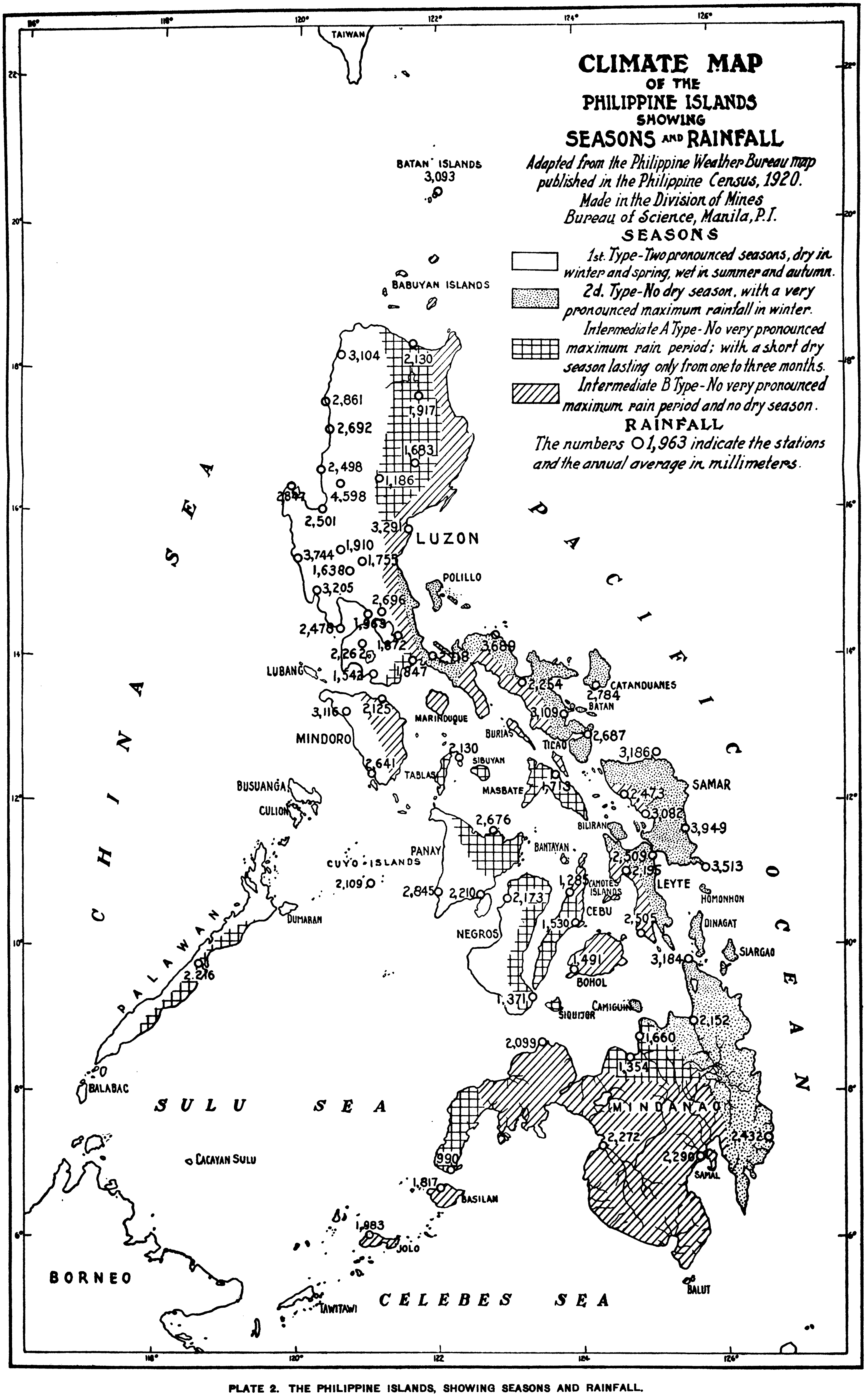

PLATE 2. THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, SHOWING SEASONS AND RAINFALL.

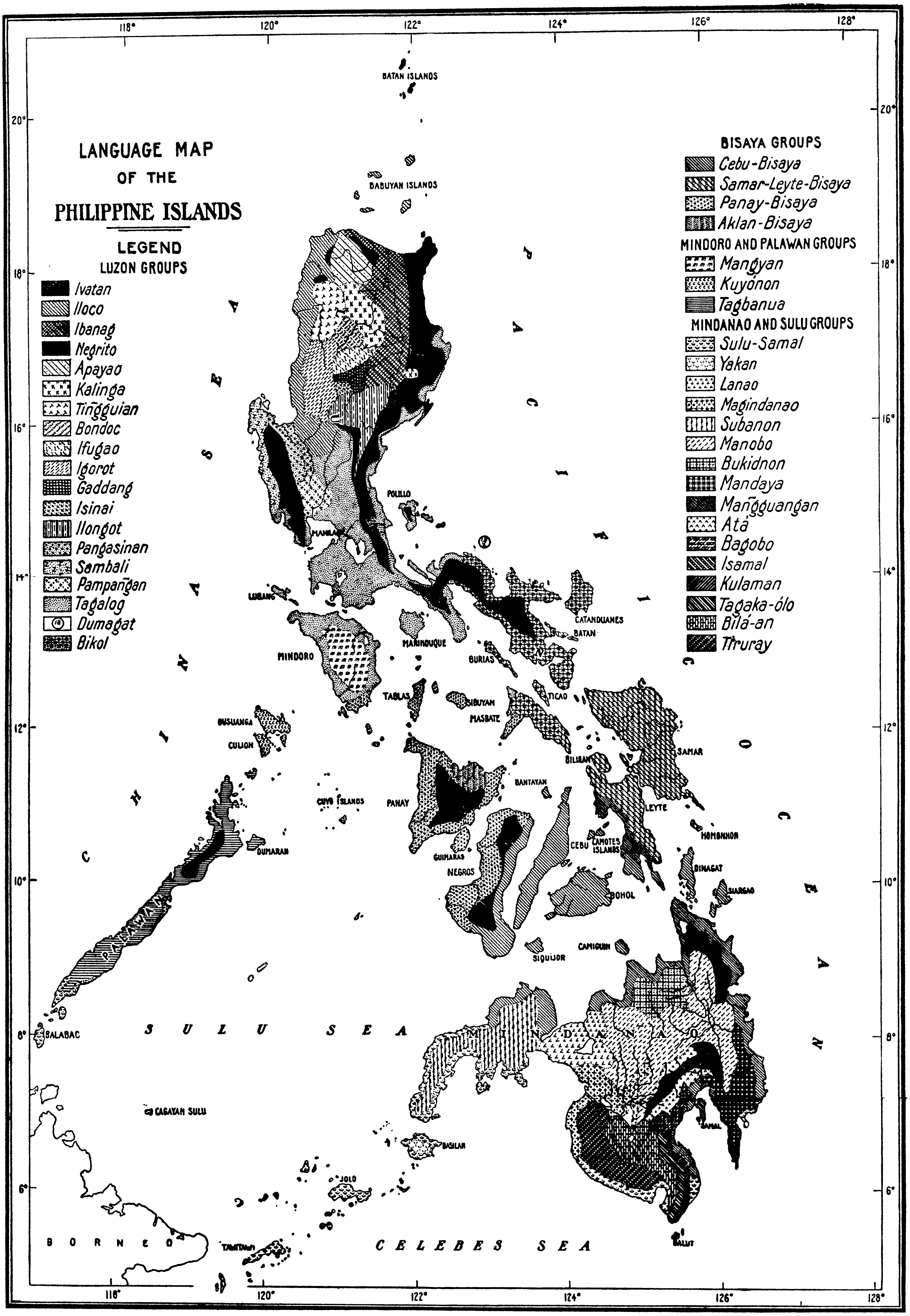

PLATE 3. THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, SHOWING THE LANGUAGES.

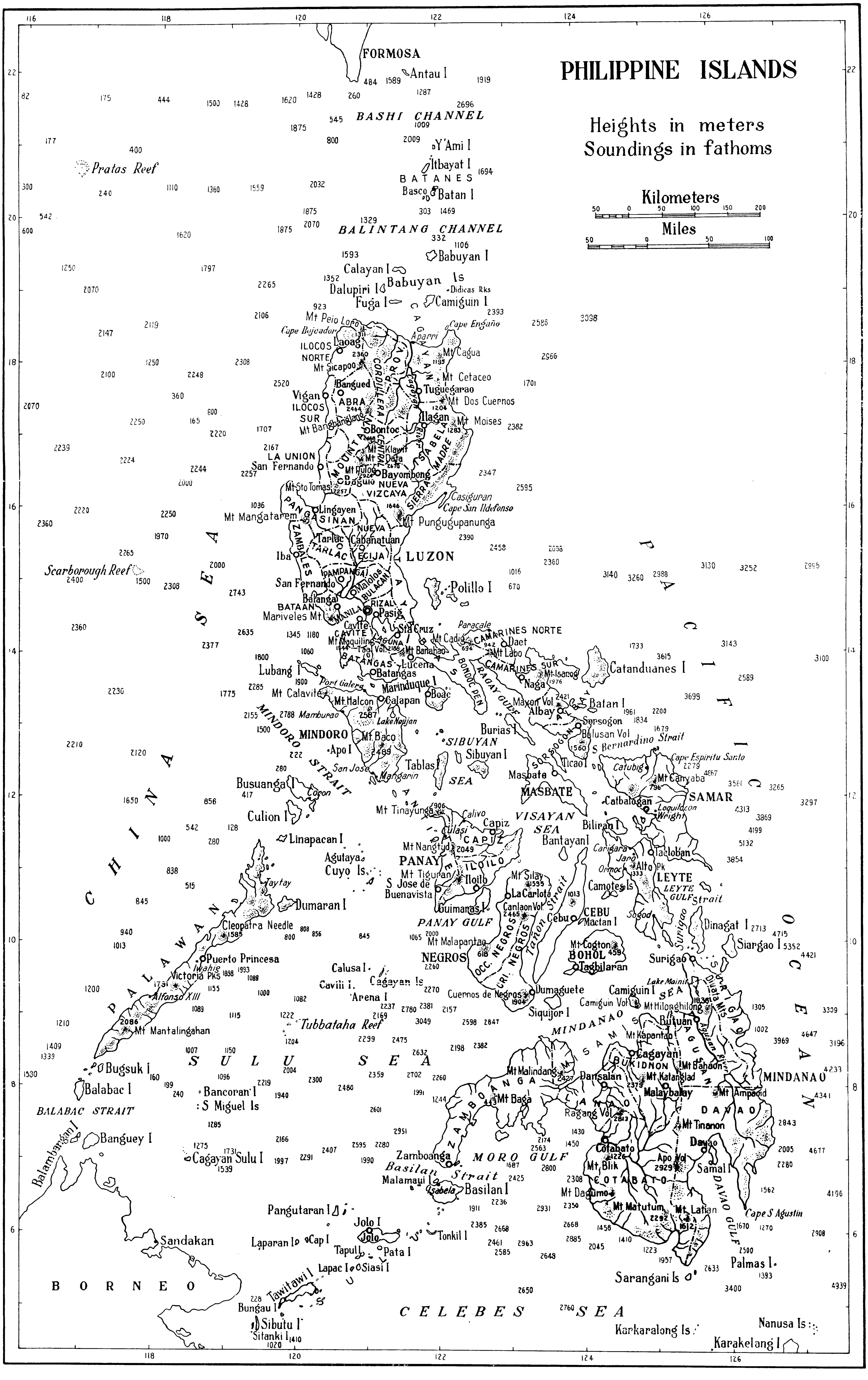

PLATE 4. THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

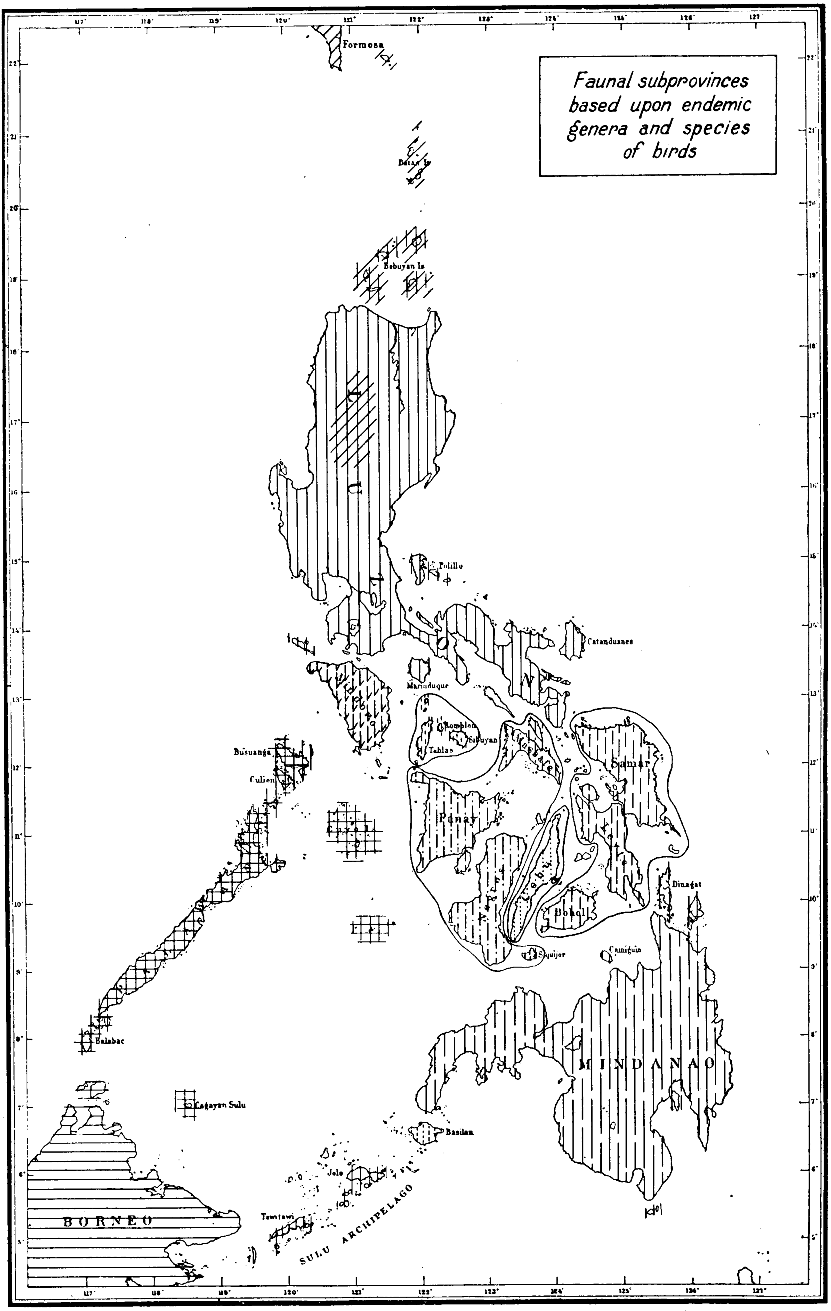

PLATE 5. THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, SHOWING THE ZOÖGEOGRAPHIC SUBPROVINCES.

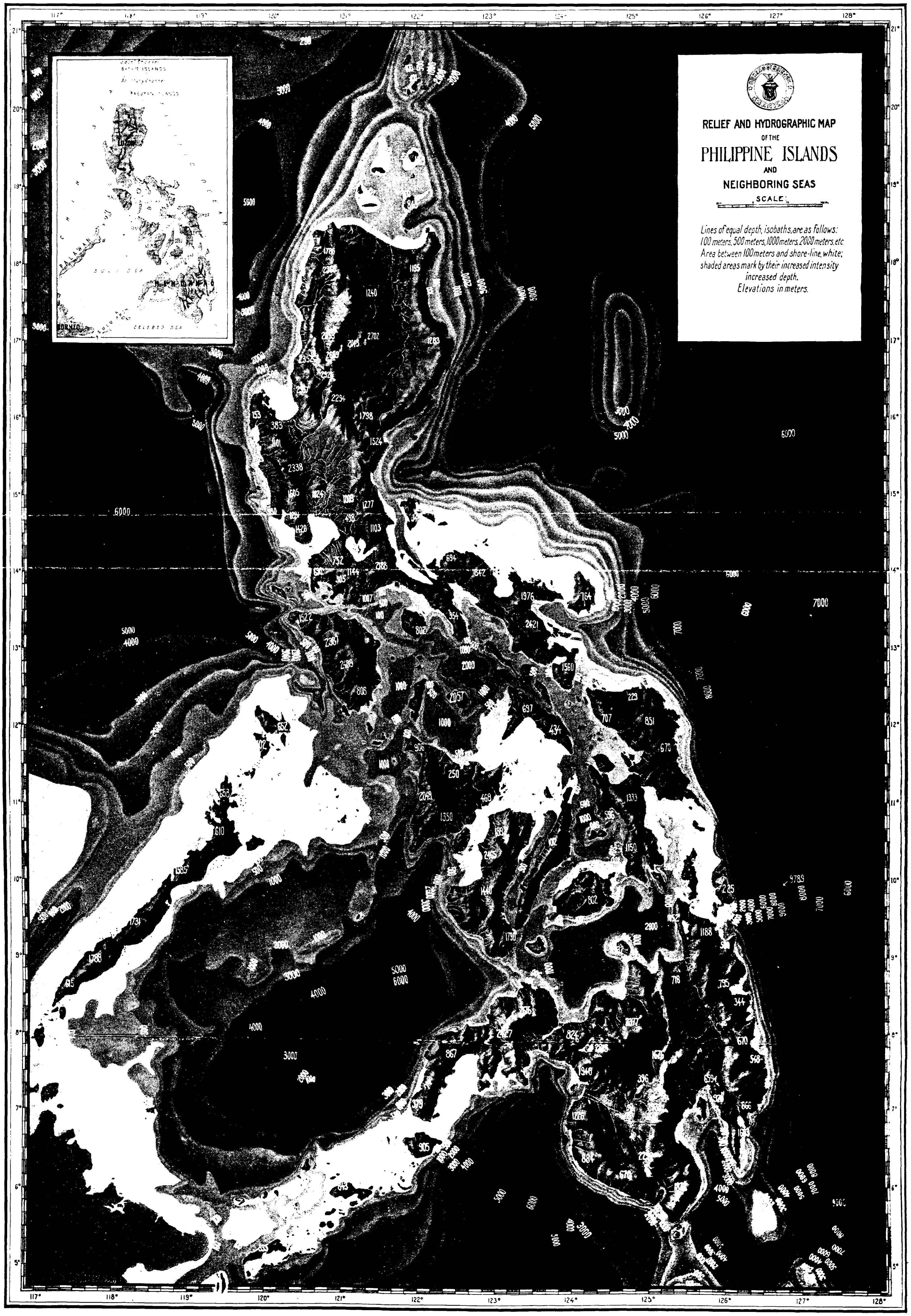
RELIEF AND HYDROGRAPHIC MAP
OF THE
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
AND
NEIGHBORING SEAS
SCALE
Lines of equal depth, isobaths, are as follows: 100 meters, 500 meters, 1000 meters, 2000 meters, etc.
Area between 100 meters and shore-line, white; shaded areas mark by their increased intensity increased depth.
Elevations in meters.
CELEBES SEA
PALAWAN
BORNEO
OCEAN

PLATE 6. THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, SHOWING THE RELIEF.

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